

THE LADIES' COLLEGE, 47, BEDFORD-square, will RE-OPEN for the Michaelmas Term on TUESDAY, the 1st of October. A detailed Prospectus, stating the subjects taught at this College, the Names of the LADY VISITORS and PROFESSORS, with the Terms, Fees, &c. may be obtained from the Lady Resident at the College.

EDUCATION.—HOFWYLL HOUSE, STAMFORD-HILL, MIDDLESEX.—In this Establishment, which is healthy and pleasantly situated, young Gentlemen receive a liberal education, kind treatment, and every essential domestic comfort. The aim of the Principal, which is fully developed in his work entitled "School Education for the Nineteenth Century," is to unite the comforts and advantages of parental care with the habits, order, and uninterrupted progress of a well-regulated public school, to develop simultaneously the physical, moral, and intellectual capabilities of the Pupils, and thus contribute to render them useful and happy members of society.—The Terms, which are moderate, may be known by addressing S. P., Hofwyl House, Stamford-hill.

AVVISO.—Un Corso di lingua e di letteratura Tedesca comincerà nei primi giorni del prossimo Ottobre mediante la lingua Italiana. Questo Corso darà serviti di pratica in ambedue le lingue si farà due volte la settimana, ed ogni volta sarà d'un'ora e mezzo. Le ore saranno regolate conforme al desiderio della pluralità delle signore e dei signori associati. Si daranno i richiami da GUGLIELMO KLAIER-KLATOWSKI, già Professore di lingua Tedesca nella Nobilissima Accademia Ecclesiastica di Roma.—Londra, No. 30, South Molton-street.

PUTNEY COLLEGE, near London.
His Grace the DUKE of BUCKLEIGH, K.G.
Principal.—The Rev. M. COWIE, M.A., late Fellow of St. John's College, Cambridge.

The object of this Institution is to combine General Education, Collegiate Discipline for Resident Students, Special Instruction in Science and its Practical Applications in the Arts and Military Professions, and Preparation for the Universities.
The charges are as follows:—
For General Education including Religious Instruction, Classics, Mathematics, the English, French, and German Languages, History, Geography, &c., Board, Lodging and Laundry Expenses, 80 Guineas per Annum.

In addition to this, Students may attend the following Courses:—

In the Civil Department	Chemistry and Physics..... Mineralogy and Geology..... Metallurgy..... Surveying, Field Engineering..... Astronomy..... Civil Engineering and Architecture..... Military Science.....	Dr. E. Frankland Professor Adams, F.R.S. Dr. Frankland C. Hodgkinson, Esq. S. Clegg, jun. Esq. W. Binnie, Esq. Captain Griffiths, R.F.P. Royal Artillery.
In the Military Department	Drawing..... Hindustani..... Sword Exercise and Fencing..... Divinity, Special Course.....	H. Fradette, Esq. F. Falconer, Esq. Messrs. Angelo. The Rev. W. G. Watson, M.A. Principal.
In the University Department	Mathematics, ditto..... Classics, ditto.....	M. A. Vice-Principal. H. M. Jeffery, Esq. B.A. Assistant Tutor.

The fees for the additional courses in these three departments are so arranged that the cost of education, board, &c. need not exceed 100 guineas per annum.

Prospectuses may be had at Mr. Dalton's, 28, Cockspur-street, Charing-cross; Messrs. Smith, Elder & Co.'s, Cornhill; or any information can be obtained by application to the Principal, at the College.

MISS WILSON, daughter of the Scottish Vocalist, begs to announce that she visits BRIGHTON professionally every week during the season there; and that she gives Lessons in town as well in SINGING and on the PIANO-FORTE.—at 47, Gower-street, London, or Mr. F. WILSON, Colonnade, Brighton.—September, 1859.

DRAWING, MUSIC and FRENCH CLASSES will be OPENED, on the 1st of October, at 84, St. Martin's-lane, Charing-cross.—Terms, 20s. for 20 Lessons.—DRAWING, for Perspective, Landscape and Figure, by Mr. Taylor, from Kensington; FRENCH, for Conversation and Correspondence, by Mlle. Du Valle, from Paris. For further particulars apply as above.

SUB-EDITOR.—WANTED, A GENTLEMAN accustomed to TRANSLATE or COMPILE WORKS on NATURAL HISTORY and other Sciences. He must speak French or German. Address "Editor," care of Mr. BROOKMAN, 27, Strand.

WANTED, A LECTURER, TO VISIT THE LITERARY and MECHANICAL INSTITUTIONS of the NORTHERN UNION during part of the ensuing winter.—Particulars may be obtained on application to J. LILLIE THORNTON, Hon. Secretary, 67, Gibson-street, Newcastle-on-Tyne.

MEDICAL PUPIL.—A PHYSICIAN connected with a Medical School, and residing in London, with an easy walk of all the West End Hospitals, has a VACANCY for a PUPIL, whose studies, if wished, he would engage to superintend. Apply personally, or by letter, addressed to M.D., at Mr. A. DUKLACHER'S, No. 16, Old Bond-street.

DECORATIVE PAINTING.—Mr. FREDERICK BANG, FROM THE ROYAL ACADEMY of MUSIC, Decorative Artist in Fresco, and all other manners of Painting, whose works may be seen in the principal Public Buildings of the Metropolis, begs to inform his Patrons and Architects in particular, that he has considerably increased his Establishment, and is enabled to undertake, on the shortest notice, the Embellishment of Private and Public Buildings, in any part of the United Kingdom, on the most reasonable terms, and in any of the CLASSICAL, MEDIEVAL, or MODERN STYLES.—Apply to F. SAGE, Decorative Artist, 35, Pall Mall, London.

THE WATER CURE.—Dr. WILSON, of MALVERN, at the request of a large circle of Patients, will continue to visit the first Monday in every Month, and may be consulted, October 1st, at Hallway's Hotel, Brook-street, Grosvenor-square, from 10 till 4, his Colleague, Dr. STUMMES, superintending the Establishment during his absence.
Homoeopathic Patients may also consult Dr. W., as to those domestic Water Cure processes that are combined with so much efficacy with Homoeopathic treatment.

GREAT EXHIBITION IN 1851.
HER MAJESTY'S COMMISSIONERS have decided that the demand for SPACE for EXHIBITION must be returned by the Local Committees by the 31st of OCTOBER. The Westminster Local Committee, therefore, urge upon the Inhabitants of their District to send in their Applications by Monday, the 30th of October, otherwise they may not be able to obtain the space they require.
The necessary forms may be obtained of the Secretary, Mr. G. H. DAWK, No. 28, Parliament-street.

TENDERS FOR CATALOGUES.—To PRINTERS and PUBLISHERS.—The Executive Committee of the Commission for the EXHIBITION of 1851, HERBY GIVE NOTICE, that it is the intention of Her Majesty's Commissioners to have TWO CATALOGUES prepared, one full and comprehensive, which will probably extend to two or more volumes, to be sold at a price fixed by the party contracting; the other to be sold for One Shilling. Copies of the terms proposed will be ready, October 1, at the Office of the Executive Committee, 1, Old Palace-yard. The Tenders will be required to be delivered on Tuesday, the 2nd of October, 1850.
M. DIGBY WYATT, Sec.

ROBERTS'S HOLY LAND, EGYPT, and NUBIA.—Subscribers to these magnificent Works, intending to have their copies bound, are respectfully invited to inspect a Set, just finished for a Subscriber, in 6 vols., by Messrs. WATTS, 24, Pall Mall.

THE CALOTYPE or TALBOTOPE.—HORNE, THORNTHWAITE & WOOD, 13, NEWGATE-STREET, LONDON, beg to invite attention to their STOCK of APPARATUS, CHEMICALS, PAPER, &c. for the above beautiful Art.
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PHOTOGRAPHY ON GLASS.—GEORGE KNIGHT & SONS beg to inform all persons practicing the Photographic Art, that they are now ready to supply Iodized Glass Plates for Negative Pictures, either Portraits or Views, of all the sizes of Daguerreotypes, and in a state for receipt of two sensitive solution. Positive and Negative specimens may be seen at their establishment. Sole Agents for Voighlander & Sons' Photographic Lenses.

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THEOLOGICAL PREMIUMS.
A GENTLEMAN deceased left by his Deed of Settlement a considerable Fund to be applied by his Trustees at intervals of forty years from 1871, in the payment of Two Premiums, for the best TREATISES on the following subject:—
"The Evidence that there is a Being, all Powerful, Wise, and Good, by whom everything exists; and particularly to obviate difficulties regarding the wisdom and goodness of the Deity; and this, in the first place, from considerations independent of Written Revelation; and, in the second place, from the Revelation of the Lord Jesus Christ, from the Scriptures, to point out the inferences most necessary for, and useful to, mankind."

The amount of the fund to be so applied cannot be less, at any period, than 1,500*l.*, and, as far as lies in them, to be paid on occasion of the next competition, be about 2,400*l.* Three-fourths of the fund divisible at each period are appointed, by the terms of the bequest, to be paid to the Author of the best TREATISE, to be found by the Judges, to be named as above mentioned, to possess the most merit; and the remaining fourth to the Author of the Treatise which, in the opinion of said Judges, shall be next in merit to the former. Each TREATISE shall be sent to the printer and binding three hundred copies of each of the said Treatises, or of purchasing three hundred printed copies thereof, as the said Trustees shall think proper. The said Trustees are desirous that persons to whom they shall think the same will prove most useful, or in any other manner that they shall judge proper."

The Ministers of the Established Church of Aberdeen, the Principal of King's and Professor of Marischal College, Aberdeen, and the Trustees of the Testator, are appointed to nominate and make choice of three judges, who are to decide upon the comparative merits of such Treatises as shall be laid before them; and it may be proper to mention that, to discourage mean performances, the judges are empowered (if unanimous only), to find none of the Treatises produced of sufficient merit to entitle the writers to the premiums. The Trustees, however, believe that in the present state of the literary world, this is a contingency which can scarcely occur.

The Trustees, deeply sensible of the importance of the Founder's design, and anxious, as far as lies in them, to do full justice to his wishes, venture to give an assurance that, in appointing the judges at the proper time, nothing will be regarded but that eminence of character and qualification which shall secure a satisfactory decision.
The time allowed by the Testator for the composition of the Treatises for the next periodical competition, extends to the first of January, 1854; and his Trustees do now intimate, in compliance with his appointment, that those who shall become competitors for the said prizes must transmit their Treatises to ALEX. & JOHN WATSON, Advocates in Aberdeen, agents of the Trustees, in time to be with them on or before the 1st of January, 1854, as none can be received after that date; and they must be sent free of all expense to the Trustees.

The Judges will then, without delay, proceed to examine and award the comparative merits of such Treatises as shall be laid before them; and the Trustees will at the first term of Whitsunday after the determination of the judges, pay the Premiums to the successful candidates, agreeably to the will of the Testator.

As it tends much to an impartial decision that the names of the Authors should be concealed from the judges, the Trustees request that the Treatises may not be in the hand-writing of their respective Authors, nor have their names annexed to them. Each Treatise must be distinguished by a peculiar motto; this motto must be written on the outside of a sealed letter, containing the Author's name and his address, and sent along with his performance. The names of the successful candidates will be known by opening their letters. The other letters shall be destroyed unopened. The writers of the unsuccessful Treatises may afterwards have them returned by applying to Messrs. WATTS, 24, Pall Mall, and by mentioning only the motto which they may have assumed.

Letters addressed as above (post-paid), will meet with due attention; and it will save much trouble in answering inquiries, to announce that there is no restriction imposed as to the length of the Treatises.
Aberdeen, 18th Sept., 1850.

PEEL TESTIMONIAL, SALFORD.—To MITTIE are desirous of inviting Artists to submit DESIGNS for the PEEL TESTIMONIAL proposed to be erected in Peel Park, Salford, to the memory of the late Sir Robert Peel, Bart.

The Committee offer no opinion as to the character of the design, preferring to leave that entirely to the judgment of the competitors, their only object being to obtain a composition as effective and characteristic as the means at their disposal will allow.

The Committee name the 30th of November for the delivery of the designs, and they must be sent to the Town Hall, Salford, letter containing the name and address of the Artist, and marked on the outside with a motto corresponding with that attached to the design.

The Committee offer the sum of 50*l.* to the author of that design, if any, which shall be selected. This sum is to be included all remuneration in respect of any future drawings and specifications may be needed, as well as the superintendence of the erection of the Testimonial. They further offer the sum of 50*l.* for the design of the third; the whole of the designs to remain the property of the Committee, for the purpose of being permanently placed in the Picture Gallery of the Salford Royal Library and Museum; and, before the selection is made or declared, they will be gratuitously adopted this course in order to give to competing Artists the best guarantee in their power that their selection shall be justified in all respects.

The site will be in the open air within the Park, and the total cost of the proposed erection must not exceed 1,500*l.*—Any further information may be obtained on application to the Honorary Secretaries.

NATH. SCHELMEDINE,
JAMES RENSHAW,
JOHN G. LEEHMAN, } Hon. Secs.
Town Hall, Salford, Sept. 28, 1850.

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NOTICE.—The semi-annual Sales of Books to the Trade are held the first week in June and December of each year.

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MR. J. C. STEVENS will SELL by AUCTION,
at his Great Room, 38, King-street, Covent-garden, on FRIDAY, the 4th of October, at 12 for 1 o'clock, a very superior Dissecting Vase Apparatus and Microscope, and a variety of Chemical and other Philosophical Instruments, including a Shell, Minerals, and Fossils—a small Library of Books, containing Lambert's Genus Pinus, coloured plates—Curtis's Botanical Magazine, and other works on Natural History and Geology. May be viewed on Thursday and Morning of Sale, and Catalogues had.

MR. L. A. LEWIS'S SALES for OCTOBER,
1850.

Friday, 4th October, a MISCELLANEOUS COLLECTION of BOOKS.

Friday, 11th, and Saturday, 12th, VALUABLE BOOKS and BOOKS of PRINT.

Friday, 18th, and Saturday, 19th, BOOKS, including the STOCK of the late Mr. CHARLES WHITTE.

Friday, 25th, PICTURES, PRINTS, BOOKS, STEREOTYPE PLATES, COPYRIGHTS, BOOKS in QUIRES, &c.

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THE EDINBURGH REVIEW.
No. CLXXXVII.—ADVERTISEMENTS intended for insertion are requested to be forwarded to the Publishers before Saturday, the 25th, and not later than Monday, the 30th instant.
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DULAU & CO.'S QUARTERLY LISTS.
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Book-buyers, Librarians, and others desirous of receiving the above, are informed that it is intended to be sent to all parts of the United Kingdom and the Colonies on application to the Publishers, SOTHERAY, SOU & DRAPEL, British and Colonial Booksellers, Tower-street, Eastcheap, London.

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BOOKS.

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On Saturday, October 12,

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REVIEWS

The History of Peter the Cruel, King of Castile and Leon. By Prosper Mérimée. With additional Notes. Bentley.

It is pleasant to greet an arrival from France bearing no sign of the controversies of the time,—and such as to deserve at any time a welcome. M. Mérimée, formerly known among the poets by the pieces bearing the name of Clara Gazul, now appears in the graver field of history;—the subject chosen, however, being one that hardly yields in romantic variety, strange turns of fortune, characters of strong expression, and tragedies of the deepest pathos to anything created by the imagination. Within the period and in the land which was marked by the fortunes of Pedro of Castile, the scene is crowded with figures over which both history and song have thrown a lasting interest. The names of Blanche of France, Iñez de Castro of Portugal, Du Guesclin,—the Black Prince, the White Company,—belong alike to romance and to reality. The very "Don Juan" of Mozart and Byron plays his part for an hour as no fabulous gallant at the court of Seville; Moors and Christians join in the council or in the field here, as well as in the strains of the *Romancero*; and the desperate game played for a crown by the rival brothers whose more than Theban strife was surrounded by such various objects of pity, admiration or terror, wants no incident, from its commencement to its climax, to fill the just measure of a tragic theme. One more striking could scarcely have been desired by a poet; yet M. Mérimée, who claims that character, has handled it with the judgment and diligence of an historian.

He has been fortunate, too, in meeting with a diligent and well-informed translator: conversant with the authorities on which the original rests, and able not only to supply from these good illustrations of the text, but also to add from his own reading new comments and completions that enlarge our view of the subject, or improve it with lively particulars,—and here and there to correct slips of his author's pen. The notice of these, if not very material, is still satisfactory; as proving no less the care and competence of the translator than the general soundness of the original text, in which no serious errors have been marked by one who would not have failed to detect them had such existed. Altogether, the book, as prepared by this double manipulation, may fairly be described as a piece of honest work, done with a measure of skill and diligence too seldom applied in these days of showy and shallow performance to the picturesque chapters of history.

On a first glance at the subject, knowing the proneness of even eminent French writers of late to take a bias on historical ground from national jealousies, we might have looked for a prejudice on the part of M. Mérimée, of which we were glad to find not the slightest indication in his essay. Of the contending brothers, Henry, it is well known, was supported by France,—while it was English arms that gave his rival the victory whose fruits he was too headstrong to keep. This circumstance, however, has not affected the view which the French author takes of the strife, or of the combatants on either side. Far from having any leaning against Don Pedro, he rather tries—and we think on substantial grounds—to place his character and conduct in a somewhat fairer light than is usually allowed to it either in history or in tradition; not, indeed, by denying his undoubted acts, or concealing the vindictive, treacherous or savage traits of

his nature, but by showing with what limitations, under what aspects, these are to be viewed—in the personal training of the king, and in the times and the men he had to deal with; and how the aim of his violence (chiefly falling on a mutinous nobility, who sought each a petty sovereignty of their own), while it made him an object of detestation to that class, did on the whole tend towards the political strength of the realm,—his severities being regarded with approbation rather than disgust by the mass of the people, afflicted by those turbulent local tyrants, the *Ricos Hombres*. The picture here given of the latter will not please romantic imaginations, fond of investing the Spanish cavaliers of the middle ages with all the dazzling virtues of chivalry. The severe pencil of history draws their figures, during this time at least, in no such inviting colours. With some rare exceptions, personal bravery in the field will be found the only virtue that can be truly ascribed to the feudal nobility of Spain in the fourteenth century. Of loyalty to their sovereign—of respect for their word—of true brotherhood in arms—of generous treatment of the captives or the fallen—nay, of reluctance, even, to execute any cruelty prompted by interest, without regard to age or sex—the Peninsular annals of that time scarcely exhibit a single instance. The Castilian or Aragonese noble, solely intent on his own aggrandizement and independence, was ready at any moment to throw off the allegiance he had sworn, even where it had been additionally secured by the favour or high trust of the sovereign. In the endless commotions that shook the land—divided as it was between Aragon, Castile and Portugal, and the Moors of Granada—the *Rico Hombre* was ever on the alert to betray the falling cause, to transfer his allegiance to a new suzerain, and either take the field or engage in baser means of hostility against his former lord—often against a benefactor or a kinsman—if there seemed a glimpse of advantage to be gained from the treason. The slightest offence to his irritable pride, jealousy of a rival, the refusal of an expected dignity, sufficed to break the feeble tie which bound the noble to the Crown. So long as he thought it his interest to obey, there was no open cruelty or secret practice of the monarch of which he would not be a willing instrument. In the period embraced by this history, intestine rivalries in the houses of Aragon and Portugal, as well as the fraternal strife around the throne of Castile, gave perpetual occasion and incitement to this game of baseness played by the greedy, impetuous and unprincipled nobility of the Peninsula. The mind tires of dwelling on the defections, perjuries and bloody indifference of men who claimed to represent the chivalry and honour of Spain during the vicissitudes of the strife between Pedro and the bastard sons of his father Alphonso. A clear perception of their general character and habits is, however, indispensable to any right judgment of the royal actors in this tragedy. The chivalry of France and England at the same period certainly far excelled that of Spain in the knightly qualities of good faith, honour and generosity. This marked contrast in their favour is attested not by the partial sketches of Froissart alone:—it appears in the bare narratives of fact found in Ayala and other contemporary Spanish chroniclers. But we restrict this unfavourable character of the *Ricos Hombres* to the particular age now in question. It lies beyond our province to insist on the better traits that would be found in the portraiture of the Spanish *Hijos d'algo* in earlier as well as in some later ages. The fourteenth century, indeed, is perhaps the darkest in the Peninsular annals of the middle

age as regards the knightly fame of its nobles. Its ruling character, M. Mérimée thinks, was one of all others the most opposed to our notions of ancient chivalry.

"Were it necessary," he says, "to characterize the 14th century in Spain by the vice then most prevalent, I believe that it would be neither coarseness of manners, nor rapacity, nor inveterate habits of violence in the powerful. The most salient characteristic of this sad period is, in my opinion, duplicity. Never, indeed, has history recorded so many acts of treason, so much duplicity. This age, in other respects so rude, exhibited ingenuity only in the art of deception. It delighted in subtleties. In all engagements, and even in the code of chivalrous honour, there lurk equivocations which self-interest might easily turn to account. Oaths were lavished on all occasions, in the most ordinary transactions, and accompanied by the most solemn ceremonies; and yet they were viewed as mere formalities sanctioned by custom. He who pledged his faith, his hand laid upon the Holy Gospels, would not be trusted unless he delivered up his wife and children, above all his fortresses, as hostages; and indeed this last pledge was always considered the only true test. Distrust was universal, and every man regarded his neighbour as his enemy. * * * The men of the 14th century lived apart, like beasts of prey; and that energy, that strength of will which we now admire in them, they probably owed to a consciousness of their own bad faith, which constantly reminded them that they neither had nor could expect to have any human succour but that of their own strong arm."

If such were the *Ricos Hombres*, the monarchs of that time were no whit better than their great vassals in the point of good faith. The accounts which the chroniclers deliberately give of their audacious and complicated breaches of faith leave room for one feeling only; of wonder, namely, that men who knew both from experience and by their own consciousness the treacherous nature of all engagements, the frailty of the most awful oaths, and the hollowness of treaties which the contracting parties at the moment of signing them had already laid plans for breaking as soon as it might be profitable to do so,—should, nevertheless, have continued with such pains and minuteness of negotiation to repeat what one and all must have known to be a ridiculous ceremony. Yet no sooner is the existing compact broken, in a way proving a treacherous design from the beginning, than another is set on foot with as much earnestness and formality as if there were no cause to doubt its future observance. Nor does any kind of reflection on former perfidies of the most flagrant kind appear to disturb the new proceedings of the contracting parties. They recommence the web of intrigue as if the ground were virgin of any previous stain of deceit. This may be termed a singular feature in the history of intrigue in all periods of the so-called Machiavellian diplomacy. But at no period and in no country does it appear more strangely prominent than in the treaties of this 14th century between the occupants or claimants of the various thrones of Spain, Portugal and Navarre. Promises that in fact went for nothing were nevertheless exchanged with as much pomp as if they had a standard value. Of such, none perhaps were oftener lavished or more shamelessly broken than the engagements for princely intermarriages which were brought into most of the Spanish treaties of the day with the professed object of converting hostile relations into firm alliances. At one period of this history, for instance, where we find the King of Aragon (Pedro V.) promising his Infante to a child of the King of Navarre, the prince had already "been engaged to several princesses by as many different treaties,"—some quite recent, and none as yet disclaimed. In the very nego-

tiation including that promise, the Aragonese king, at the same moment when the treaty with Navarre was in progress—its declared object being against invasion from the side of France—"despatched ambassadors to Paris with secret instructions to conclude an alliance offensive and defensive with France, the end of which was to be the ruin of the Navarrese monarch and the partition of his dominions." The Navarrese, being weaker, was, if possible, more busily false than his neighbour. About the period of the Black Prince's descent upon Spain, we find him taking money and investitures from each of the rival brothers, plotting the while how to sell them both.—

"He had received 56,000 florins from Don Pedro: 60,000 doubloons from Don Enrique. * * He had scarcely signed the treaty of Libourne with Don Pedro (by which he was bound to aid the king's forcible re-entry into Spain), than he opened another negotiation with Don Enrique. Oaths cost but little; he was therefore prodigal of them. In a conference which took place secretly between the two princes at Santa Cruz de Campezo, the Navarrese monarch swore on the Holy Gospels the contrary to that which he had called heaven to witness at Libourne: he was bound by this last oath to close the pass at Roncesvalles, to join all his forces to those of Don Enrique, and even to uphold that prince's cause with his own body in the battle-field.

It is needless to add, that neither the one nor the other engagement was in any respect observed.

This condition of mutinous nobles and faithless kings with whom—besides the enemy in his own house—the Castilian had to deal, must first be duly taken into account in any estimate of his conduct. Pedro was a mere boy when he succeeded to the crown. Long before he was old enough to assert his own will or show his proper disposition, he had reason to know that the allegiance of the great crown vassals was to be counted on so long only as they had cause to fear the effects of revolt or to covet the rewards of loyalty;—that his bastard brothers and his cousins of Aragon were incessantly plotting against him, with a view, if not at first absolutely to dethrone him, at least to extort dignities and provinces from his weakness;—and that the neighbouring kings of Portugal and Aragon were ever ready to protect the rebels and assist the enemies of his crown, who thus were always sure of an asylum near enough to be dangerous to Castile yet beyond the reach of its laws against traitors. What they were ready to attempt, the proceedings during his illness, still more their imprisonment of the king at Toro, sufficiently showed. Under such circumstances, the practice of dissimulation and cruelty cannot be exclusively ascribed to a natural bias to these vices. They must in a large degree have appeared, to one of Pedro's training, as necessary acts of self-defence: open good faith and clemency could only be viewed by him as the qualities of a dupe. In Pedro's case, moreover, there were particular circumstances that might have rendered a gentler temper than his perfidious and revengeful. By his father he was treated with dislike and contempt: all Alfonso's love was lavished on the children of his concubine, the fair Leonor de Guzman. While titles and honours were heaped on the heads of the bastard princes,—while they attended the king in the camp "and shared the perils and glories of war,"—the Infante, the rightful heir to the crown, was kept like a prisoner at Seville,—forbidden alike the honours of the court and of the field,—"a daily witness of the humiliations heaped on his mother, and totally neglected by the courtiers." As M. Mérimée justly observes on this head:—

"The impressions of youth are deep and lasting. The first feelings which Don Pedro experienced were

those of jealousy and hatred: brought up by an insulted and weak-minded woman, he received from her lessons in dissimulation, and learned to form projects of revenge."

For some years after his accession he was altogether ruled by his minister, Don Juan de Albuquerque; and it must be remarked, that the acts of cruelty done while that great noble was absolute Mayor of the Palace, if not so many, were as cruel as were the most of Pedro's own later atrocities; while the former had not the excuse of passions roused by provocation, but were the studied determinations of mere policy or ambition. The murder of the unfortunate Leonor, mother of the bastards of Castile,—the treacherous slaughter of Alonzo Coronel,—were crimes eclipsed in ugliness by a very few only of Pedro's worst cruelties, committed when suspicion and misfortunes had at last rendered him utterly savage. In his treatment of poor Blanche of France, though this is the most notorious blot on his name, there is nothing certainly proved against him but neglect and imprisonment of a woman whom he never pretended to love. What shall we say of the minister who brought this ill-starred marriage to pass, while Pedro, then a mere boy, was passive in his hands? At the same moment while Albuquerque was hastening the arrival of the princess, he threw in Pedro's way—with the express object of enslaving him to a mistress whom the minister hoped to govern—one of his own wife's damsels, the celebrated Maria de Padilla: and it was from her arms that Albuquerque, who had just lured him into them, dragged the reluctant prince to the nuptial ceremony with Blanche. Her misery and early death—imputed, but not certainly traced, to the hands of a husband who never concealed his dislike to her, and whose dislike might easily become hate when the luckless woman was set up as a sign of revolt by the insurgent nobles,—have cast more odium on Pedro's name than all his other actions,—many far worse than his conduct to Blanche. But the minister who forced him to take the wife while still in the glow of a passion which he had himself provoked for a fascinating mistress,—must be charged with the chief share of the subsequent misery of guilt that grew from this odious transaction. And yet, of all the great public figures of the time, there is, on the whole, not one that appears with more splendid qualities and with fewer shameful blemishes than this same Juan de Albuquerque.

Amidst a crowd of false and selfish actors, each jostling the other in the hope of gain or in the heat of jealous pride, the sweet figure of Maria de Padilla is the only one the eye can pursue with any kindly interest. Every authentic account, whether from friendly or from hostile pens, proves her to have owed the power which she gained over Pedro, and retained even after death, to qualities well deserving of his love. Her lively and rich beauty was animated by a clear spirit and warmed by a gentle heart. We always find her pitiful, generous, feminine. No one—the romancers excepted—pretends to charge her with any of her lover's cruelties. Many that he intended, it is known, were stayed by her intercession; those which she could not prevent she was always ready to deplore. The ballads accuse her of sorcery: the charm of a sweet and radiant nature is sufficient to explain her power over Pedro's heart. He often gave her rivals of a day,—but always returned to her with new affection. The kinsmen whom her favour brought forward are, on the whole, the most creditable group of courtiers which this history exhibits. Juan de Hínestrosa, indeed, never betrayed his master: and Diego de Padilla remained true until the gloom of Pedro's broken

fortunes had made him terrible to all who still remained within danger of his fury.

Had Enrique de Trastámara or his brother bastards sworn hatred to Don Pedro in revenge for the murder of their mother, Leonor de Guzman, one could have better sympathized with their intrigues and rebellion. But there is not the slightest reason to believe that any such motive occurred to them. They began to conspire against the King of Castile at a time while he still appeared anxious to rely on them as brothers, and while they were greedily snatching at whatever favours could be procured at his hands. The fate of their mothers had no place in the memory of such sons: their hidden treacheries at first and open revolt afterwards were prompted by motives altogether selfish. Enrique was dexterous, supple, and wary, as well as brave: popular in his manner, he had narrower political views but was less fierce in temper than Pedro. In selfishness, perfidy, and ingratitude, it would, however, be hard to point out his superior, even among the proficients of that faithless time. We little regret Pedro's fall; but could have had no pleasure in Henry's triumph even were it not defiled by a fratricide. The other bastards, Tello, Sancho, Fadrique, were milder natures,—but not less insidious and heartless than their elder, Henry of Trastámara.

Among such combatants, one may see that M. Mérimée finds it a relief to come upon a character of more frankness and truth,—like our own Black Prince. Even Du Guesclin, in spite of his treachery to Pedro in the closing scene at Montiel, appears straightforward and generous by the side of the Infantes and their followers and fellows. We turn from their intrigues with disgust,—and only begin to breathe more freely after recrossing the Pyrenees.

On the whole, surveying the field from that distance, it may be seen that Pedro fell, not so much because he was a cruel tyrant, but because he attempted before the time was ripe to raise the crown above dependence on the great nobles. By the people he was not hated. "To them he was the defender of the oppressed, the redresser of wrongs, and the fierce enemy of all the iniquities of the feudal régime. * * * The justice of Don Pedro, which has become proverbial, was like that of the Moorish sovereigns,—prompt, severe, almost always passionate, and frequently capricious in form,"—but in substance consistent with right. By the Nobles he was termed the Cruel,—the People entitled him the Justiciar.

In tracing his career, M. Mérimée chiefly follows the chronicle of Ayala; whose authority he maintains—we think on fair grounds—to be in the main unimpeachable. On the accessory parts of his history, however, he gains many new lights from the archives of Aragon, still preserved at Barcelona with a completeness and in a good order which he attests with due praise. His narration is clear, lively, and free from tinsel or exaggeration; and we have only noticed a few instances in which the desire to do justice to Pedro's memory has tempted him somewhat unduly to extenuate—we do not say to deny—the charges against him. The strongest case of this kind will be found in his comment on the list of crimes imputed to him in the proclamation by Don Enrique. Here it is incorrect to say that "the greater number of these are far from being authenticated;" indeed, all but two or three of them, at most, are directly laid to his account by M. Mérimée himself in the preceding chapters of his narrative. On the whole, however, we give this writer the praise of having fulfilled his task with a degree of pains and fairness not always found in modern historical sketches, and with a fluency and

decision that cannot fail to recommend the work to many readers.

We have already praised the editorial care of the translator; whose occasional failures in Englishing the idioms of the original are more than compensated by the value of his additional notes,—some of which contain curious matter well worth preserving. Of these we shall mention one that gives to a rude local pastime of our own, but lately abolished, an origin more romantic than may be generally known. The "bull running" at Tutbury, we are told, was a translation to England of the *Serran Corrida de Toros*, by Don Pedro's daughter, Costanza, afterwards wife of John of Gaunt,—who, "inheriting the taste of her countrymen, established this sport at her domain of Tutbury in Staffordshire."

Having barely touched on some of the general heads of this interesting work, we must refer our readers to the volumes themselves for an acquaintance with its various and often exciting or pathetic details: assuring them that whether in search of instruction or of entertainment they will in neither case be disappointed.

Natal, Cape of Good Hope. A Grazing, Agricultural, and Cotton-growing Country. Comprising Descriptions of this well-endowed Colony, from the year 1575 to the present time, by Government Officials and Travellers. With a Map of the Colony and Engravings. By J. S. Christopher. Effingham Wilson.

THE assiduous reader of books on the English colonies might easily fancy the powers that miracle them to be either hopelessly ignorant, utterly indifferent, or culpable in a high degree. Again and again the Colonial question has been so treated by practical men as to convince the most sceptical that a good system of emigration, conducted by Government with all its powerful means of action, would not only relieve the home market from the pressure of labour and the competition of the starving, but would convert these sources of our present weakness and peril into solid buttresses of our strength and prosperity. We have some of the noblest lands in the world at our disposal, suitable for all purposes and situate in all latitudes,—lands that are now covered with rich morasses or crowned with magnificent wood. We have hundreds of thousands of able-bodied labourers anxious to possess and cultivate a rood of ground of their own. We have fleets rotting in the dockyards at Gosport and Plymouth for want of employment,—and squadrons lying in the Tagus and in the Bay of Naples because they have nothing else to do. Yet Government cannot bring these three elements together!—State this matter how you will, it fails to harmonize with any reasonable interpretation of official duty. England has more paupers, and more uncultivated estates to feed them on, than any other nation in the world. With nearly three millions of persons in this country more or less dependent on charity, she possesses unappropriated lands in the various colonies, from Canada to New Zealand, sufficient to endow every man, woman, and child of British parentage with "a thousand acres each." While the cries are daily ringing in her ears of the multitudes who are trampled down and perishing in the crowded thoroughfares at home, she has vast solitudes of her own abroad, lying in the hush and sterility of the desert or yielding fruits that give nourishment to none, where their limbs might have free action and their bruises be healed. While her people are starving, she has great public granaries of which she will not open the door. The cure of the Ancient Mariner—"Water, water everywhere,—but not a drop to drink"—rests on her

children through her neglect. Not content with merely refusing aid to the fittest class of emigrants—the poor whose thews and sinews are valueless here and almost priceless there—she has formed an artificial and vicious system which operates as a formal bar to exclude the great mass of industrious persons from any advantage in the soil which is the common patrimony of Englishmen. In all the colonies the price of land is so high as to shut out both the absolutely poor and those of limited means. Mr. Christopher—who appears to understand his subject thoroughly, though he writes about it in anything but an attractive manner,—proposes in reference to Natal a plan which, in principle at least, has been suggested for other colonies besides that in South Africa. He proposes that Government shall make a loan to Natal of one million sterling,—which sum, he thinks, might be negotiated at 3½. or 4½. per cent., on security of the colonial revenue. With this money he would export 100,000 persons to the colony—labourers, artisans, capitalists,—giving to all a free passage. These men settled on the fertile frontier would, he says, effectively defend it against the Kafirs, and thus at once put an end to the necessity for our maintaining five hundred soldiers there. His facts and figures pretend to that sort of accuracy which results from actual experience. He shows that the security of the colonial revenue is good, and that the loan could soon be repaid. Each of the 100,000 immigrants would, he says, consume ten pounds' worth of imported goods, paying a duty averaging 7½. per cent.; this would yield 75,000*l.*,—or, deducting 40,000*l.*, the annual interest on the loan, it would leave a profit of 35,000*l.* As to the principal, he calculates that in three or four years five million acres of land would be sold in consequence of the arrival of this large increase of occupiers,—which at the present rate of 4*s.* an acre would be just one million sterling.—We neither accept nor deny the truth of these statements; but we put them before the reader, that such as have the power to verify and act on them may have the opportunity.—The rest of Mr. Christopher's volume does not call for special notice at our hands. It is a judicious compilation,—but the materials were already accessible in other quarters.

POETRY OF THE MILLION.

WHEN, last week, the small number of unacted dramas waiting for trial and verdict was pointed out as among the peculiarities of this Lenten and altogether penitential September, we had not overlooked a little pile of such books on a corner of our study table. This pile consists of a Spanish comedy, an ancient English historical tragedy, and a Norman play.

Of the plots of none of these will we profess to give our readers a full, true and particular account. Greatly would it be to the advantage of the play-wright seeking success in dramatic construction, if he were bound, after the fashion of the old poets, to preface his work by a plain and minute argument thereof, scene by scene,—if with stage directions, so much the better. What astounding characters would, in the course of the process, offer themselves to his baffled understanding,—what metamorphoses passing the acceptance of mortal faith,—what motives to let,—what people superfluously in the way, and only arbitrarily to be got rid of,—what secrets shouted out aloud at the most inopportune moments,—what great events miraculously hidden from persons carefully bandaging their own eyes, or deliberately turning their heads away that they may not see!—Rash would be any uninitiated person who should attempt the task: we will leave it to the authors for their second editions.

The Spanish Rake,—an original comedy, by Robert St. Clair Jones—is, we presume, intended to be a drama of "the cloak and sword" school,—of intrigue rather than of character. At all events, from the first moment of talk in "a street at Madrid," to the last scene in "the grand white marble saloon in Don Favilla's mansion, open at the back,"—we are in a continuous maze the puzzle of which the reader must unthread for himself. Yet, the fable is not complicated for lack of the most condescending explication on the part of the interlocutors. In speech the fifth of *scene the first* King Philip makes "a clean breast" to his friends and the public,—and in the following page the Duke of Medina Coeli (a traitor) gives vent in a soliloquy to villany stated with a precision as arithmetical as that of the pence table. Shortly after the above confidences, the wit of the piece is tapped by "Alphonso, Doria, Mariani, and other Gents" (*sic* in original).—But we had better turn to the comedy, offering samples of smart and serious dialogue for the gratification of those among our readers, if any such there be, who delight in the pursuit of drama under difficulties. First, then, the following, according to Mr. Jones, is Spanish repartee.—

Enter Julian de Lopez, Ramiro, Alphonso, Doria, Mariani, and other Gents.

Omnes. Ha! Ha! [*Laughing.*]
Julian. That is the rarest piece of attic salt we've chewed for months! Egad, it's risible! The man who has but four, and out of four, spends five, will never want a leathern purse.—But prating of the moon; they say she rules All waters, salt and fresh, strong liquor, too; For drink we e'er so little at the full, Our spirits, tide like, rise above the neap— And send our heads a swimming.

Ram. See, the moon,
She's in the East.
Julian. The deuce! how swollen she seems— A little bloated, after sleep, perchance. She rises decorously, at all events; She wears a fleecy cloud upon her lower limb. The Duke Medina here!

Ram. That turncoat, who Forsook his patron, Philip, and enrols Himself with Philip's foe?—

Julian. We'll tickle him.— Behold this moon! you see that scar above Her northern eye— who gave her that?—

Alp. We cannot guess.
Julian. The great Medina, minister of state! In battle 'gainst the Moors—he aim'd a blow, To doff the crescent from a Moorish tire, When—sad mistake—he struck his mighty blade Against our offending moon.

Omnes. Ha! Ha! [*Laughing.*]

The following, on the same authority, is Hibernian humour.—

O'Ryan, without, sings the following.

Oh! the world is a great big round ring, I can swear,
With an emerald bright set upon it,
Oh! and that precious stone is the land of the fair
Sweet Hibernia, and all that dwell on it.

Julian. The cavalier we met some time ago, And pour'd the liquor down his willing throat; I'd fain know more of this same witty dog.

Enter O'Ryan.

Dost follow us my friend, that thou art here?
O'Ryan. What! follow in the ways of wicked men!
Ram. Did you not drink a bottle with us now?
O'Ryan. I fear not.
Ram. How?
O'Ryan. A bottle's made of glass.

What mortal ever took a draught of glass?
Ram. Then quaff'd you not the spirit in the bottle?
O'Ryan. Impossible! a bottle large enough

To hold a full-sized man, I never saw;
Then I quaff'd not the spirit in the bottle:
I've some faint recollection that I drank
The stuff that issued from the bottle's mouth,
But cannot bring to mind the flavour now,
Unless another sample meets my eye.

[*They sink at each other*

What follows exhibits Mr. Jones's notion of a display of passion.—

Gabriella. My bosom, like contending elements
Of air and sea, is fraught with stormy strife—
That knave spoke falsely—Philip is not captured!—
And yet th' appointed hour is high—he comes not—

[*Knocks.*

Thou power that rulest true love's destiny,
[*Duke appears at door, L.H.*
Protect him from the hands of traitorous foes;
Redeck his path, so long o'erspread by thorns,
With peaceful flow'rets; illumine his soul,
So long o'erclouded, with a ray of hope;
Disperse his foes; restore his kingdom; heal

The rankling wounds of base ingratitude;
For his bereavement hath been long—severe;

[Duke approaches her unobserved.

Duke. To cherish love for Anjou, now, were vain
As habitant of Earth to wish a home
On yonder shining world, that wends its way
Through infinite space.

Gab. His blood is flowing, then! [Starting up.
Arow but that, and thou may'st hope, thou fiend!
From happy realms, beyond our universe,
To gain an angel bride before this hand.

Duke. I am but mortal!—seek but mortal love;
If such be vain ambition, then, indeed,
Medina's fate is hard.

Gab. When stratagem
Is used to win, we merit then to lose.
Why would'st thou crush a noble edifice,
To build a worthless fabric on the site?
For, were it possible to make me thine,
Affection's plant, which like the ivy, twines
Around the thing it loves, if thus removed,
Must wither and decay. 'Tis rooted here,
For Philip: eradicate the cherished flower,
And all the strings of life are broken—dead!

Duke. How oft it is the fate of mortal beings
To entertain a mad, yet hopeless love;
The which to gratify, what mortal pause,
(His arm invincible) at any deed?

The lives of thousands, yea, the fall of empires,
Were atoms in the scale, the while the wounds
Of desperate passion rankle at his bleeding heart!
Such love is here!—such hope!—such desperation!

Creation sent thee forth to bless or curse me!
Possessing thee, a Heavenly bliss were mine;
Resigning thee, the torments of the damned!

Believe, and answer me accordingly,—
The power is mine to have thee forcibly,
My wish, to win thee by entreaty. List!—
I utter but a word,—thou also diest:

One syllable from this preserves thy life;
Then urge me not to act compulsion;
Stretch forth a willing hand and shield thy heart.

Philip [crying] Ho! Gabriella!
Gab. God! his voice!
Duke. His voice!

We fancy our readers will not care to amuse
themselves further with 'The Spanish Rake.'

St. Ethelberht: an Historical Tragedy in three acts, by Alfred Haviland, is the work of one who in his dedicatory preface, addressed to Sir T. N. Talfourd, confesses himself to be a "noviciate" in the paths of literature,—and by that confession establishes his youth in the lore of Lindley Murray and Dr. Dilworth. For one so innocent, he has tremendous notions of stage effect; as may be shown by a terrible transcript, which, terrible as it is, is yet the gentlest portion of the third and crowning act of Mr. Haviland's tragedy. To the understanding of the following awful scene no introduction is required—beyond the statement that the body of Wimberht, a wicked person and assassin, just deceased, has been dragged from the stage, leaving, as the reader will see, pretty liberal traces behind it.—

Enter Offa, wearing the Crown of Anglia.

Offa [looking around the Chamber].
This was the hour chosen by my Queen,
To meet my Earldormen in council here:
Where are they all? So soon their business done
Makes me believe its import was not great;
And yet it was, for I remember well,
They were convened to give their best advice,
How to avenge the death of Ethelberht.

What can this early dissolution mean?
'Tis like the whole affair, a mystery,
Which as I contemplate I shudder at;
Why should this feeling overcome me now,
Which once suspicion started in my mind,
When Cynethryth, my Queen, did urge me on,
With all ambitious argument, to seize
And wear the crown of Anglia's murdered King,
Ere half his subjects knew their dreadful loss.

[Looking on the floor.

Heavens! What is that I see before their
Throne—'Tis blood—still streaming as it rolls.
How like a pool I've seen somewhere before—
Where? where? Oh! memory tell me where—
Yes—Yes—I know—I know—I know—
But is it real, or only now a dream?
That haunts my vision as I think of him,
Whose crown is pressing on my whirling head?

[As he stoops the Crown falls into the blood.
O! fearful omen of this dreadful deed,
See, how its crimson glance does stare the truth!
And stain the crown that revels in its flood.

Enter Egmondus unobserved.
Oh! Heavens, can this be true? Are all these thoughts
The dark forebodings of my harrowed mind,
Now grappling truth in such a doubtful form;
Or are they all without foundation forced,
From my imagination overwrought,
By thoughts of murder, and by solitude?

[Takes up the Crown.

No! No, it is no dream, the blood is there,

See how it trickles from this weltered crown,
Which, as I hold it, weeps its gory tears.

[Turns and sees Egmondus—is agitated, and lets fall the
Crown—stares vacantly at Egmondus as he speaks.

Egmondus. There let it lie, and never wear it more,
Since it can only stain thy royal brow;
Aye, and with purer blood than what is there—
Hear me, King, that gore which yet is warm
Once cours'd along the veins of him,
Who, tempted by a fiend still blacker than
Himself, did slay King Ethelberht.

Offa. Who was the villain?
Egmondus. One who has made atonement for his crime
By hurling her to hell who tempted him.

Offa. By hurling her! who is she then?
Egmondus. Let thy suspicions answer thee—
Offa. I dare not, Egmond, tell me, tell me, who?
And rack my soul no longer on suspense.

Egmondus. Thy Queen.
Offa. My Queen! Oh Heavens! thou art just.

Though a "noviciate" in the use of every-day
English, Mr. Haviland has read the modern
Anglo-Saxon dictionary with zeal. Besides the
"Earldormen" we have "ceorls," "thegns," and
other devices of similar force introduced,—like
the golden-eyed needle in *Mrs. Jarley's* show—
to mark the period.—Enough of these august
persons and amazing things!

High seasoned meats have this disadvantage,
over and above their own pungency,—that they
spoil the simple and healthy palate for plainer
fare. Thus, if we do not invite the reader to
taste with us some fragments from *The Templar*,
a *Play in five acts*, by Angiolo R. Slous, it is
because we fear that its thoroughly sensible and
level writing would fall flat after the jocosity
of the Gents of Mr. Jones and the horrors of
Mr. Haviland's heroics. The fable is romantic,
—made up of such well-known ingredients as
old revenge and passion intercepted in its course
by the Templar's vow.—In arranging his materials
for the stage, Mr. Slous seems to have had
reference to the powers of Mr. and Mrs. Charles
Kean—to the former of whom the drama is
inscribed. There is nothing here to shock by its
monstrosity—nothing to divert by its bathos;
—and though, on the other hand, there is little
which by novelty of situation, force of passion,
or felicity of diction would justify quotation, we
yet closed 'The Templar' inclined to believe
that with pains and patience Mr. Slous may
produce an acting play of fair merit.—Since the
above was written, a rumour has reached us that
'The Templar' may possibly be produced at the
Princess's Theatre.

*The Antiquities of Richborough, Reculver, and
Lymne, in Kent.* By Charles Roach Smith,
F.S.A. Illustrated by F. W. Fairholt, F.S.A.
Smith.

THE object and general contents of this attractive
volume will be best explained by a brief
extract from the Preface. The author is speak-
ing of an assemblage of antiquities made by a
gentleman of Sandwich.—

"It was my first idea merely to make Mr. Rolfe's
collection the basis of a volume, in connexion with
Richborough, and perhaps, at the same time, to say
a few words on the remains of antiquity at other
places occupying the sites of Roman stations in the
county of Kent. Among these I had hoped to in-
clude the unique and interesting Pharos at Dover;
but although the exterior of that structure is exposed
to the pitiless propensities of curiosity-hunters, its
interior, within the last few years, has been blocked
up by an order from the Ordnance Department, so
that its peculiar architectural features can no longer
be inspected. The site of the castrum at Lymne at
that time presented but little apparent interest; and
my object in including it in the title of our book
was to direct attention to its remains, with a remote
hope that some wealthy landowner of the neighbour-
hood, or some owner of the land upon which the
Roman ruins stand, might be moved to raise the soil,
and see what lay beneath. I should probably have
waited long enough, had not Mr. James Elliott, of
Dymchurch, co-operated with me, and had we not been
supported by a list of subscribers to aid in defray-
ing the expenses of the excavations,—most of

whom, it may be remarked, are altogether strangers,
and in no way connected with the county. In con-
sequence of the incipient researches this made at
Lymne, the publication of the volume has been
delayed beyond the intended period; but, at the
same time, they have enabled us to give some infor-
mation on points which previously were unknown."

If, as is intimated above, the blocking up of
the interior of the Pharos at Dover by the Or-
dnance Department has prevented the exploration
of it, it is a misfortune, but not without a re-
medy. It may be opened and examined on
some future occasion; and we cannot help think-
ing that a proper representation from persons
of known attainments in matters of archaeology
would secure admission. Possibly, no applica-
tion was in this case made; and if, as the author
states, the exterior is still "exposed to the pit-
iless propensities of curiosity-hunters," it is
probable that it was doing some service to close
the building, so that the interior might not be
exposed to the same "pitiless propensities." If
this edifice still remains to be investigated, we
hardly know how to regret it on the present
occasion; for Richborough, Reculver, and Lymne
have afforded sufficient for one volume,—and
the Pharos at Dover may be reserved for another
expedition, and another publication to be pre-
pared by Mr. Smith and illustrated by Mr.
Fairholt. They deserve all encouragement; and
we are glad, therefore, that the list of subscribers
to their present undertaking will certainly much
more than save them harmless from the expenses
which they may have incurred.

It is fit to remark in the outset, that although
this book is devoted especially to the Roman
and other remains found at Richborough, Re-
culver, and Lymne, the author has explained
them, and diversified his labours by many re-
ferences to objects and discoveries elsewhere,
whether in this kingdom or abroad. His attain-
ments in this department enabled him to do in
this respect what few others could accomplish;
and the result of his labours has been in some
sort the illustration of antiquities generally.
Though professedly confining himself to certain
localities, he has wandered far and wide to make
his discoveries not only useful and intelligible,
but entertaining. We hold this to be one great
merit of the work before us; and if a few men
like Mr. Smith were honestly and industriously
employed (not making, as is often the case, a
job out of the thing, for the sake of securing an
annuity,) in going over the country to hunt out,
describe, and preserve ancient national monu-
ments, we should soon be able to form a collec-
tion most instructive as a matter of history and
very amusing even to superficial observers. We
are confident also that private persons, now the
owners of some few relics, whether of little or of
great interest, would be glad to contribute to a
design so useful and valuable. When once a
general museum of the kind is established, all
minor assemblages of curiosities will sink into
such comparative insignificance, that individuals
with a view only to their own importance, and
in order to distinguish their own names, would
not hesitate to procure themselves to be re-
corded as liberal and disinterested donors. We
have before urged this matter; and we are sorry
to perceive that no steps have yet been taken to
establish and carry out a system something like
that of Denmark, which under Mr. Worsaae has
worked so well, and has occasioned the dis-
covery and preservation of so many remains in
Sweden and Norway intimately connected with
our own antiquities, of the stone, the bronze,
and the iron ages.

After a short "Introduction," in which the
author at once summarily settles the disputed
point about Lucius (on which Mr. Hallam has
an able article in the last volume of the 'Archæ-

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dogia') by declaring that "the standard of Christianity was first raised in Britain by St. Augustine," we arrive at a dissertation on the origin and foundation of Richborough Castle, under the name of Rutupium, with quotations from Juvenal, Ammianus Marcellinus, Ausonius, Lucan, &c., more or less apposite, and with the advantage (hardly necessary, had the work not been intended to be popular) of translations. Why it should be supposed that Lucan "had probably been an eye-witness of the turbulent billows lashing the Rutupine shore" because he was "a native of Spain," we do not quite understand; and if it were not meant as a *sequitur*, still we are a little at a loss for the evidence on which the probability is founded. However, this has not much to do with the portion of the work which relates to the antiquities found at Richborough; and which is introduced by two excellent etchings of the Castrum as it now exists, followed by two other views of the same remains from a different point. The latter are woodcuts, and we perceive the name of W. Rimbault at their corners; so that we have the benefit of another hand besides that of Mr. Fairholt in the illustrations, and we are no doubt indebted to the same hand for the two characteristic representations of Reculver in a subsequent part of the volume.

It is not easy to select passages,—for two or three reasons; the principal being, that the woodcuts, &c. are so numerous that they are inserted on almost every page, and that the letter-press is hardly intelligible without reference to these. The following, relating to the foundation and formation of the walls of Richborough Castle, is an exception, and we avail ourselves of it.—

"The foundation of the walls of the castrum is formed of two rows of boulders, laid upon, or a very little below, the surface of the natural soil, which is a compact pit-sand. The great body of the wall is composed of layers of boulders, and layers of a mixture of boulders, sandstone, ochre-stone, blocks of chalk with pholades embedded, and balani on their surface; the whole cemented with mortar formed of lime, grit, sea-shells, and pounded tiles. There are also pieces of oolite and travertine, which some of our geologists have imagined were brought over from the Continent. These ingredients vary in proportions in different places, apparently as particular materials were abundant or otherwise during the progress of the building. The facings of the walls have already been described. It was the opinion of Mr. King that the walls were constructed by having the whole mass flung carelessly into a great *caisson*, or frame of wood, the interior breadth of which was that of the wall, and its depth, that of the space between the alternate rows of tiles, while its length was sometimes more and sometimes less, just as suited convenience; and that the parts thus reared, one at the end of another, on and over each row of tiles, were united together afterwards merely by means of very small loose stones and mortar thrown into the narrow space left at the ends between them. The objections to this theory are, that the separations asserted to be filled up with small loose stones are nowhere discernible; the distances between the bands of tiles are not equal, as they probably would have been had *caissons* been used; and the materials constituting the body of the walls do not appear to have been thrown in carelessly, but, on the contrary, are arranged with much precision, as seen in the south wall, from which almost the entire facing has been removed; and, towards the east side, an immense mass of the interior masonry has been extracted, so as to form a kind of chamber, in which the regular arrangement of the strata of boulders is clearly shown. In other places, where the walls have been broken into, the same system may not be so obvious, on account of the difficult nature of the materials."

After some further information on the general nature of the structure, Mr. Smith proceeds to describe the remains collected by Mr. Rolfe of Sandwich,—under the various but usual heads

of fictile vessels, glass, personal ornaments, wall-paintings, implements, utensils, and coins, with a few miscellaneous articles; and at the conclusion he sums up the whole in these terms.—

"The class of monuments described in the preceding pages cannot but be regarded with a high degree of interest. They extend over a period of upwards of four hundred years,—from the first arrival of the Romans in Britain to their final departure. The coins of most of the earlier emperors are comparatively scarce; but toward the latter end of the third century, when Carausius wrested the province from Diocletian and Maximian, they suddenly increase in number; and those of the ten years during which the island maintained its independence far exceed those of any other reign, although the coins of many of the subsequent emperors are very numerous. This may probably be ascribed to a local cause. Carausius, it is well known, commanded the Roman fleet which was stationed in the Channel to guard the coasts of Britain and Gaul from the incursions of the Franks and Saxons, who had already begun to be troublesome. Carausius subdued the pirates, but was himself subsequently accused of allowing them to carry off booty, which he intercepted before they reached their own harbours, and appropriated to his own use, instead of sending it to the treasury at Rome. Maximian having given orders for the degradation of his accused admiral, the latter, anticipating the worst, sailed with the fleet to Britain, of which, by the aid of the legions there stationed, and one or more quartered in Gaul, he obtained complete possession. There can be little doubt that the Rutupine coast was the scene of many important events, which, unrecorded by the pen of history, must be presumed to have occurred during the dismemberment of the province from the Roman empire. The fleet which aided Carausius in his successful adventure, probably had its chief quarters at Rutupia,—a station, above all others, important for communicating with Gaul and Germany. The unusual number of coins of this emperor, and of his successor, Allectus, which appear in our Richborough list, show certainly that the place was well occupied during their reigns. The denarii of Carausius, marked *AR.*, as has been before observed, were probably struck at Rutupia; there seems to be no other feasible interpretation of these letters; and this mode of explaining them is perfectly consistent with numismatic formulae, as well as with local circumstances. The gold and silver coins of Carausius bear usually, in the exergue, the letters *ML.*, or *AR.*, denoting, as is suggested, Londinium and Rutupia as the places of minting, and where, probably, Carausius himself mostly resided. The number of coins of Carausius and Allectus found at Richborough is the more striking, when it is considered that they are by no means generally common, and that the silver are of the highest rarity. On the contrary, coins of the Constantine family are found everywhere in profusion; but numerous as they occur at Richborough, they bear a very inferior proportion to those of the two Romano-British emperors, when the length of reigns is compared."

Perhaps the most novel of the discoveries made by the author and illustrator of this work is, the Amphitheatre at Richborough:—but for a full account of it we must be content to refer to the volume. We then arrive at the account of Reculver (*Regulium*, as the station was called by the Romans); which in process of time became a monastic establishment of considerable importance. The church contains portions of Roman architecture, the arches being turned, and the walls banded with Roman tiles; and various antiquities of the same period have been preserved, and are here engraved either on steel or on wood. The last thirty or forty pages are devoted to an account of the Roman Castrum of Lynne, or *Portus Lemani*,—in more modern times called Studfall Castle. It was visited by Dr. Stukeley (whom some are disposed underservingly to decry as an antiquary) considerably more than a century ago. Recent excavations have enabled Mr. Smith to discern something of its form and structure; and the illustrations of this part of the subject have the recommendation

of novelty as well as that of accuracy. The drawings for some of these, if we are not mistaken, were laid before the Society of Antiquaries during last season.—It is quite clear, notwithstanding recent explorations, that much remains to be discovered in this situation. The excavations have, in fact, only been commenced; and we must look to some future publication (we hope by the same competent author) for a complete account not only of the existing state of the ruins, but of various objects of historical and antiquarian interest no doubt yet to be brought to light.

A Liberal Education in general, and with particular reference to the leading Studies of the University of Cambridge: Principles and Recent History, Part I.; Discussions and Recent Changes, Part II. By W. Whewell, D.D., Master of Trinity College, Cambridge.

[Second Notice.]

As the two new Honour Triposes at Cambridge include subjects which essentially involve a cultivation of various developments of the reason, we think that the University has done well in throwing them open for competition to a lower degree of mathematical attainment. We cannot say so much with respect to what is done as regards the Classics, so long as the study of them is confined to the bare study of the languages. But if the examinations are made to involve proficiency not merely in the languages themselves, but in the subject-matter of the books—their philosophy, their history, and their poetry—we think that this, too, is a movement in the right direction. We cordially agree with Dr. Whewell, however, in thinking, that strong measures must be taken to counteract the ill effects produced on the mind by the exclusive study of the classics at the great schools. We concur in opinion that the question of sound education is the question at issue,—and not the mere question of the comparative justice or injustice of excluding men who from imperfection of mental culture will study nothing but the languages. A mind so cultivated is unworthy of any honour. The Universities are bound to make themselves places of wholesome education,—and not to degrade themselves to the mere ministerial agency of carrying out the imperfect education of our great schools.

We also agree in opinion with Dr. Whewell that the study of logic as pursued at Oxford is no adequate substitute for mathematics in a liberal education. The art of pointing out the principles and laws of correct reasoning, and the art of correct reasoning itself, are two things different in *genere*. It is not more rational to suppose that logic, as it is practised at Oxford, can be a substitute for mathematical studies, than to suppose that a blacksmith would find his arm as much strengthened by observing the laws according to which another blacksmith smote on the anvil as by the strong exercise of smiting on the anvil itself. A man may thoroughly comprehend what are the correct processes which the mind goes through in reasoning, and yet be completely unable to reason correctly.

Though Dr. Whewell has nowhere expressed his opinion, yet from the general complexion of the work before us we cannot doubt that he must be of opinion that the system pursued at Oxford is extremely defective for the purposes of liberal education. Nine out of ten of the tutors of the University are utterly ignorant of the elementary principles of mathematical reasoning,—and arithmetical operations of the most simple character would be to them utterly posing. As a body they are no less ignorant of physical science and modern history. The only discipline of the reason that they have enjoyed

is, the reading through of two or three treatises of Aristotle or of Plato. Many of them have even very low honours in their own University. And yet men who are themselves so destitute of the essential elements of a right discipline of the rational faculties are the parties who have to communicate a liberal education to the rising generation. It will also be evident that Dr. Whewell must be of opinion that the usual acquirements demanded for a pass degree at Oxford are a most inadequate proof that he who has obtained it has enjoyed the benefit of a liberal education. We must add, the same is true with respect to Cambridge. In fact, Dr. Whewell actually considers that a place among the *polloi* is only proof that the party has passed through his University career without disgrace. Alas, in what does the result of three years of universityship and from six to twelve years of schooling end!

Dr. Whewell admits the importance of professional lectures;—yet he seems an advocate for the entire maintenance of the present system of tutorial teaching. We regret that he has so completely overlooked in his treatises the very important subject of collegiate reform. Cambridge does not contain such anomalies as force themselves on the attention of the most careless at Oxford. Still, it must not be forgotten that the Cambridge, no less than the Oxford, fellowships are held as sinecures, although, according to Dr. Whewell's own account, the Fellows of Trinity have the duty imposed on them by the statutes of acting in the capacity of tutors to the students. We, ourselves, strongly as we desire the introduction of an efficient professorial system of teaching in our Universities—a system which can be said to exist in neither—are fully of opinion that the college Fellows might be most usefully employed in the work of tuition in subordination to the Professors. Half the Fellows have hitherto been non-resident,—and these, from the nature of the case, must be totally useless to the well-being of the University. The funds, as they become vacant, might be used to supply a requisite number of professorships, in which the University is lamentably deficient. The present staff of professors is quite inefficient to perform the functions of the public teachers of the University.

Dr. Whewell is very properly in favour of a portion of all examinations being oral. All intellectual training has for its ultimate object to enable the mind to perform the various duties of life in the best possible manner. It will not be denied that various faculties of mind having the most direct bearing on the great business of life are pre-eminently called forth by a *visd voce* examination. Of these we may enumerate presence of mind, ability to adapt ourselves readily to the subject in hand, complete mastery over the subject. Among the advantages of some part of the examination being conducted *visd voce*, Dr. Whewell places the opportunity which it affords to detect "cramming." We fully agree with him that it is impossible too deeply to lament the ill effects with which the present system of cramming, as preparatory to the examinations in both our Universities, is attended. We are firmly persuaded that it never can be extirpated until the public examiners shall be entirely disconnected from the class of private tutors,—and instead of being annually appointed, shall be formed into a permanent board. At present, the examiners and private tutors being practically the same body, the temptation of the one to play into the hands of the other is inevitable. We greatly fear that this is the real cause which has led to the rejection of what we must consider an improvement in the mode of appointing

public examiners at Oxford. The proposed change would have done something to discover the connexion and interests of examiners and private tutors, in whom the whole art and science of cramming is vested. Nothing tends to exalt mediocrity into an undue elevation in the class lists of both Universities so much as the present system of cramming.

Dr. Whewell is wisely of opinion that our Universities are not to be viewed simply as institutions where honours are to be conferred for literary proficiency, but as places of education. The two functions, however, may be profitably combined. This might be effected by affixing some mark of distinction between those who have had the benefit of a regular course of training at the University and those who have merely proved to the University the possession of certain attainments. Viewing the question nationally, it is of the highest importance that there should exist a body legally entitled, and at the same time duly qualified, to affix the seal of their approbation to the attainments of any given individual. Among other numerous advantages flowing from the existence of such a body, it will help to exclude a number of cheats who are practising in the work of education, and deceiving and mentally poisoning the public with their miserable educational quackery.

We regret that Dr. Whewell has not directed his attention to another point of the highest importance connected with the efficiency of the Universities,—the reduction of the present enormous expense with which a University course is attended. We should have wished to enjoy the benefit of the information which his experience could have afforded on that subject,—and must strongly recommend the question to his speedy consideration. The colleges may assert that their charges are moderate,—but to parents it is practically the same thing whether the charges are unduly high, or whether the colleges permit those committed to their charge to run into enormous debt. Although the parent may be ignorant of the cause, he is fully able to comprehend the terms of the practical syllogism which is applied to his pocket,—and that the conclusion therefrom necessarily follows, the payment of far larger sums than he is prepared to meet. He knows that he can keep his son out of debt under his own roof; and seeing that our two Universities possess 1,000 fellowships which are pure sinecures, he not unnaturally asks whether the holders of these may not be better employed in discharging the moral supervision of those who are professedly committed to their care? Whether the cause of expense be in the charges of the colleges or in the habits of the students,—both are in the power of the authorities, and it is their duty to effect an immediate reduction. If the vast endowments of these institutions have not the effect of making them of moderate expense as places of education, those endowments are practically useless to the public.

Nothing so much tends to degrade our Universities from their proper position as instructors of the English people, as this question of expense. With an enlarged system of education, suited to the national wants, nothing hinders them from educating four times their present numbers. The population of Germany exceeds that of the United Kingdom by only one-half,—yet it contains nearly three times the number of university students. Yet the number of those who could afford a university education on any reasonable or necessary scale of expense must be out of all proportion greater here than in Germany. The disproportion is owing to the enormous cost of the English Universities,—which confines them almost exclusively to the wealthy classes, and is the cause

of the imperfect education of the bulk of our middle orders.—The thorough investigation of this subject may, it is true, involve the examination of a question somewhat distasteful to Heads of colleges and Fellows. It will necessitate investigation into the origin, amount, use, and abuse of existing funds. It will require that they should be redistributed to meet our national wants. It will require that the 1,000 fellowships should cease to be sinecures. It will demand that such institutions as King's College and the great majority of the Oxford colleges should be thoroughly remodelled, and that close fellowships (as being simple nuisances in public institutions) should be thrown open.—We are satisfied that to bring these things about is only a work of time. Eventually, and at no distant day, they must be.

We heartily thank Dr. Whewell for what he has effected in the cause of reform. We trust that his past success will be a full encouragement to him to pursue the same course. We respectfully solicit his attention to the suggestions which we have offered. We trust that he will ere long discuss these subjects in another work; and we hope that he will not think it travelling beyond his province to favour the world with his views on the present state of the University of Oxford,—above all, on the condition of its various colleges, and as to how far that condition is compatible with a sound system of University education in England.

The Populations of Austria and Turkey: a Contemporary History of the Illyrians, Magyars, Roumains, and Poles.—[*Les Peuples de l'Autriche, &c.*] 2 vols. By Hippolyte Desprez. Paris, Comon.

THE contents of these two volumes—reprinted, if we mistake not, from the bi-monthly columns of a Parisian contemporary,—consist of a series of popular and graphic essays (or "studies," as it pleases their author to call them) on the more abstruse causes which led to the recent movement in Eastern Europe,—sketches more or less vivid and complete of the chief actors in the drama,—and remarks on the general openings which these striking events are supposed to have made into the clouds that veil the future destinies of Europe from ordinary mortal vision. This is a vast subject; and M. Desprez treats it in the manner of his countrymen—that is, with artistic skill and great political adroitness, but entirely from the French point of view. He tells the tale so well, and re-arranges the affairs of the East with so much ease, that the reader is almost disposed to quarrel with his own memory for so often obtruding facts on his attention which persist in not harmonizing with the nicely concocted theory. Like many other French conservatives, M. Desprez is a devoted partizan of Austria. He declares, with the Ban of Croatia, that if that power were not already in existence, it would be necessary to invent it for the sake of order and civilization in Europe. But it is not the grand old empire of history, the empire of Charles V. and Maria Theresa, illustrated by German genius and Magyar valour, that is the object of M. Desprez's devotion,—nor any other Austria that is now or has been in times past. He desires an empire in which the Teuton and the Hungarian are to be equally strangers:—in short, an Austria of Slavons! Even Russia does not satisfy his instincts in favour of order. Russian, he says, is active, aggressive, revolutionary. He wants to see—professing to take the interests of French diplomacy as his point of view—the Croats and Wallacks ruling the east of Europe from Vienna. Some mysterious bond he imagines connects the Slavonic and Celtic races together, which renders it necessary for

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the peace and power of France that the great branches of that long prostrate race should again hold up their heads, and find a common centre of gravity on the banks of the Danube. To English readers, only too much accustomed to hear of the organic and irredeemable vices of the Celt, M. Desprez's assertion—that of all European races the Slaves and the Celts approach the nearest to the ideal of man, and that those two are the races on which civilization chiefly depends—will sound not a little strange. But having conceived so high an estimate of the Illyrian and the Wallack as to place them in the same category with the Frenchman, M. Desprez is at least consistent in his sketches. He not only sets them far above the other populations of Eastern Europe,—but vanquishes the Magyars for them in a style which Jellachich and Louis Gaj cannot fail to envy and applaud.

Were it worth our while to go over the events of the recent struggle—already become history—we could deny facts and dispute inferences with our author to the end of the chapter.—He speaks of the victorious Croats appearing before the insurgent city of Vienna, when everybody knows that the red mantles were flying from the sanguinary field of Stuhlweissenburg, the conquering Magyars close on their rear, when the camp of Auersperg and the reluctance of the Hungarian commander to cross the Leitha afforded them an opportunity of rallying their scattered and broken corps.—He pretends that the menacing attitude of the Slaves of Transylvania and the Carpathians kept the Magyars from crossing the frontier; though it is well known, from the published accounts of what took place in their camp, that the only reason was, the fear of some of the generals to commit themselves to an Imperial war. M. Desprez attributes the whole of the disasters of Austria to the non-appointment of Jellachich to the chief command after the battle of Schwechat—because he is a Slave; though his military incapacity has been subsequently proved by a succession of obscure blunders and defeats. When left to his own resources, it does not appear that he ever gained an advantage over the enemy,—while the young Magyar generals defeated him in turn as the various fortunes of the war sent them into the southern provinces. It is probable that the author may seek excuse for such mistakes in the fact of the periodical publication of his "studies"; but time, which has corrected the errors of the day, should have corrected also the record thereof.

Louis Kossuth is of course no hero with M. Desprez:—but in his elaborate portrait of this extraordinary man there are some fine and beautiful lines. The chief fault of Kossuth with the French writer is, that "he is really nothing but an orator and a poet." In these respects M. Desprez allows him no small share of merit; but as a politician, an organizer of power, as a practical statesman, he ranks him only with the mob of demagogues. "Would you know," he says, "the secret of his influence? It is, that the Magyar nation breathes and lives entirely in him,—thinks, speaks by his mouth." This explanation is not very clear or conclusive,—inasmuch as the reader may require to be told how Hungary came to think and speak through the organs of Louis Kossuth. M. Desprez gives the fact itself as the reason for the fact. Perhaps he had some glimpse of the truth when he wrote—"Whenever M. Kossuth speaks, it is the language of honour, of poetry, of courage, and of national dignity. Though one may well accuse him of having ruined his country, one cannot say of him, as of other demagogues, that he debased the moral sentiment, the conscience of the people."

We cannot discuss with M. Desprez the pro-

bable future of Europe:—partly because we are historians, not prophets,—but chiefly because such a discussion would lead us into the troubled and to us forbidden region of politics. Not many readers, we apprehend, will be found in England who entertain M. Desprez's views as to the best modes of re-organizing the East; but if there be any anti-Germano-Magyar enthusiasts here, they will find their prepossessions ably set forth and supported in these volumes.

The Zoology of the Voyage of H.M.S. Samarang, under the Command of Capt. Sir Edward Belcher, C.B. Edited by Arthur Adams, F.L.S. Reeve & Co.

WE noticed at the time of its appearance Sir Edward Belcher's account of the very interesting Eastern voyage of the Samarang;—and this supplementary volume describes the discoveries in the animal world made during that expedition. Great praise is due to Sir Edward and to Mr. Arthur Adams, the assistant-surgeon, for the collection and preservation of so large a number of specimens as have been placed in the hands of the gentlemen who have described the new species contained in this volume. An idea may be gained of the value of the contributions to science which this work announces, if we briefly refer to the course of the Samarang. She sailed from St. Jago, Cape de Verdes, to windward of Ascension, along the African coast,—and after touching at the Cape, anchored off Java. From thence she passed to Singapore, Sarawak, Hong Kong, Macao, and the coast of China. The Boshie Islands and Formosa were next visited. After surveying Pa-tchung-san and other islands, the vessel returned to Hong Kong,—and subsequently she visited Manila, surveyed the Parragatan shoals, and proceeded along the east coast of Borneo to the province of Unsang. She next reached Cape Rivers, in the island of Celebes,—landing on the islands of Mayo, Lemate, and Gillolo. After returning again to Singapore, Hong Kong, and Pa-tchung-san, the Expedition sailed for Corea, Quelpart, and Kiusu; and after navigating among the almost unexplored islands of the Yellow Sea, returned again to Hong Kong,—from whence they came, after surveying the St. Brandon shoals, to England.

During this very long voyage a large number of animals were collected; and those which were new or rare have been described and figured in the present volume. That the work has been done well will be understood as of course, when we mention that the Mammalia have been examined, and a list of all that have been hitherto found in the Eastern Islands has been given, by Mr. J. G. Gray, of the British Museum,—that the Fishes have been described by Sir John Richardson, the Mollusca by Mr. Lovell Reeve, and the Crustacea by Mr. Adams assisted by Mr. Adam White.

During this voyage Sir Edward Belcher was fortunate enough to capture, though lacerated, a specimen of the animal, allied to the *Nautilus*, called *Spirula*. Although the shell of this animal is well known, the creature itself has been only imperfectly examined. The discovery of this specimen has afforded to Prof. Owen an opportunity of describing the animal, and giving his views on the classification of the family of Mollusca to which it belongs. In the department of Mollusca and Crustacea the largest number of new species were obtained,—and most important and interesting additions to our knowledge of these creatures have been made.—The plates illustrative of the descriptive letter-press are admirably executed. They are the work of Messrs. Sowerby, Wing, and Hawkins.—This work is not of the class likely to have an extensive sale; but as it has been published at

the expense of Government, we hope arrangements have been made to secure a copy of it not only to the great public libraries, but to all the institutions in our large towns which can give a guarantee of their stability and have a public library attached.

The Nature and Office of the State. By Andrew Coventry Dick. Edinburgh, Black.

MR. DICK tells us in his preface that this work was written some years ago, but has been kept in the *escrutoire* on account of the absence of a popular interest in its subject-matter. The recent revolutions, however, have recalled attention to the construction and organization of the governing power. The great states of the European continent—France, Austria, Germany—have been all engaged in forming for themselves constitutions. Many other states—Belgium, Holland, and to some extent England also—though not beginning like these at the foundations, and building up entirely new political systems, are more or less seeking to modify and enlarge the bases of their internal politics. Now, if ever, is the time for the discussion of principles. Nothing is too absurd, ideal, or empirical for debate. Every man has his theory to propound—nearly every man has got his pet constitution in his pocket-book. The present, therefore, Mr. Dick considers, is the moment for his book. Not that we mean the reader to infer that it is either absurd, ideal, or empirical. Quite the contrary. These are not its faults. It is practical enough and sober enough; for it is in reality, though the fact is not stated in terms, a philosophical defence of the English Constitution—its origin, growth and development.

The great fault of the book—the fault which will prevent it from obtaining any extended popularity—is its irredeemable dryness. That this is not owing to the absence of popular elements in the subject, we have a hundred proofs. In the treatment of questions of political science almost everything depends on manner. Niebuhr renders the most minute and critical investigation interesting, because he keeps attention alive by the variety and appositeness of his illustrations. It is the same with Guizot. His principles are always grouped round with the facts out of which he has evolved them; he enables you to comprehend his process before asking you to accept his results. Hume produces the same effect by different means. With him it is not the variety of illustrations brought from every region of historical and political inquiry—he commands attention by the charm of an almost unrivalled power of narration. Certainly political philosophy need not be dryly treated; and in itself it is one of the branches of human knowledge which come most nearly home to every man's heart, and to the mastering of which his intelligence should be most willingly devoted. If a book on political science prove unpopular, it will generally be the writer's and not the reader's fault. The mass of readers are glad to get at this kind of knowledge in any decent shape; and few works are more eagerly sought for than such as afford it. See, for instance, the popularity of Guizot's 'History of Civilization' in England—of Louis Blanc's 'History of Ten Years' in France and Germany—of Schlegel's essay on the 'Philosophy of History'—and of Karl von Rotteck's philosophical view of political history. By throwing the framework of his argument into too abstract, technical (shall we also add, too scientific?) a mould, Mr. Dick has denied himself beforehand the chance of such honours. His book falls into a class which is sedulously avoided by the general reader, and is more

frequently placed upon the shelves of the student than wrought into the fabric of his mind and memory. In fact, it is a work more likely to be looked at, and occasionally referred to, than read:—and is therefore imperfect in being without a general index.

Considering that Politics was one of the earliest sciences which attracted attention, and that some of the greatest men of all ages and nations have devoted their time and genius to its elucidation—to questions of the elementary principles of government, its sources, nature, mode of operation, and the development of its laws—it is curious that it should still be so imperfect. We have not yet determined the functions of government,—nay, not even its object. In this matter, indeed, we appear to be getting more and more confused and uncertain. The Hellenes had but one theory of the purpose and sphere of government: we, at least, have two—one of them admitting a variety of modifications. One, the ancient, theory supposes the object of government to be the general well-being of society. According to it, the ruling power is absolute in every sphere. The State is the lord paramount. The individual is nothing; the body politic everything. This notion of the supremacy of the governing power was universally accepted and realized in the ancient world. All authorities were gathered into a focus—and wielded by one will. One body then represented the state, the church, the family, the proprietor, the social opinion. There was an entire union of functions in the government: it regulated everything for the inhabitants who lived under its sway. The Hebrews as well as the Greeks invested their rulers with these absolute powers:—or rather we should say these powers were exercised by their rulers because the ideas underlying them were in harmony with the genius of the people. Religion and all the other great governing powers were as completely centered in the government of Sparta, of Crete, and of the Ionian republics as in the theocracies of Palestine. Public worship and the regulation of conscience were as much provided for by the State in Greece and Italy as in Syria. As Josephus remarks, the only difference in the polity of the Jews and of the Gentiles was this,—that with the former religion was regarded as the most important of all the elements of which politics is compounded. Solon and Lycurgus held that piety was one of the chief of the civic virtues; Moses, that all the other virtues were only component parts of piety. But whether in monarchy, theocracy, or republic, the unity of power was maintained. The State, considered in its aggregate capacity, was absolute master: it owned everything; it controlled everything; and it professed to arrange everything. The theory of such a system of government implies no more than that the will of the majority is literally supreme: that there is no limit to its authority. This doctrine of the absolute rights of a majority in all cases is not only older than the other—the doctrine of limitations—but it is also more popular. It is advocated by Aristotle, by the Jesuits, by Paley and Bentham, by St. Simon, Fourier, and Louis Blanc, by the Communists of Germany, and by Utopians all over the world. Paley and St. Simon, Bentham and Fourier, in the same category! The analyzer of creeds finds out strange affinities. It is only in their means—their choice of method—that these men differ much. Paley's object of government is the "public good,"—Bentham's "the greatest happiness to the greatest number,"—and every school of Communism and Socialism adopts the same formula.

The second of our civil theories of the func-

tions of the State is not graced by such a length of lineage. It recognizes something in society higher than the State—namely, the individual man. Hence, it denies the absolute power even of a majority, and limits the functions of government to a comparatively narrow range of duties. In fact, it considers government the servant, and not the master, of society. It declares the State—that object of all love, devotion, and submission to an Hellenic or Roman patriot—to be nothing more than a fiction; while it invests the separate individuals with all the powers and rights of sovereignty. This notion, which seems to be involved in the first element of the Christian philosophy, has acquired form and substance only in modern times. Locke is perhaps its best expositor. It is realized in the republican constitutions of the United States—and partly in the monarchical constitution of Great Britain. Not, however, that we would assert this second theory of government to have been entirely unknown to what is called the ancient world; for we are well aware that at least in the later periods of Roman history deep and certain traces of it may be found, especially in the Pandects of Justinian. But it is only in recent times that men have come seriously to consider that there are departments over which the ruling power—whether it be the will of a single man or the will of a majority—has no right, no control. The limits within which this power may move are of course not yet satisfactorily defined,—nor will it be easy to come to any conclusion on this point so long as a large portion of civilized mankind retain the idea that the power of a majority is absolute. In America (where there is a power higher than that of the State—the Constitution—to transcend which the Congress has no right, as has been proved on several occasions), in England, and in Germany, the currents of opinion set strongly in this direction. Free traders and political economists generally are in favour of what we may call the theory of limitation. In France—at least partially—in Italy, and in Spain, in countries generally where the genius of the people tends towards centralization, opinion moves the other way. The economists say the world is sick with too much governing. It wants repose—to be let alone. It can take care of itself;—cease to interfere with it. On the other side, the Communists say all the misery in the world springs from defective government. It must be ruled more and better. Everything is in a state of chaos; make haste, let it be organized.

Mr. Dick adopts the creed of Locke—the theory of limitations—in preference to that of Aristotle. But we confess to being dissatisfied with his way of presenting the argument,—which is hard, technical, and wanting in illustrations. It is not so presented as to excite attention—much less to carry conviction. All modern political theories worthy of scientific analysis imply the existence of an original contract; not, as is sometimes inferred from the terms employed by jurists when speaking of this contract, in the shape of a formal and legal agreement—but a tacit and mutual understanding under the terms of which men were willing to enter into social and political relations, the conditions being comprehended and accepted without any necessity arising for their being stated in words. But what are the terms of this compact? what the bases on which society is organized? For, it will be remembered, Society is something more than the State; it existed before it; it transcends and includes it. The State is, in fact, but one aspect of society—like the Church, the Family, the Proprietary. Hobbes and the disciples of his

school say—man surrendered to society all his powers, rights, and liberties whatsoever; divesting himself of every attribute which he owned when in what is called a state of nature. This doctrine involves all that is peculiar in the pagan principle of government omnipotence. Despotism could ask no better warrant for its misdeeds. Hobbes, of course, considers that this divestment of rights is made for the general good. So the Russian princes said when they reduced their free peasants to the rank of serfhood;—so say the South Americans when they refuse to emancipate the Negro. The doctrine is indeed far too dangerous ever to find acceptance with a free and instructed people. It destroys all guarantees and checks to power. No other authority could exist in presence of the State. Whatever it does is right. Government becomes in theory irresponsible; for if men have surrendered their individual rights and judgments, they are clearly not competent to pronounce on the acts of their common superior. This is a necessary corollary of Hobbes's doctrine. Indeed, it is the great weapon which Edmund Burke used against the revolutionists of the last century. He declared that no man has a right to judge of a matter in which his own interests are concerned; that right having been resigned, as he says, when the social compact was formed. Fourier himself is hardly more logical than this. But what cannot a man prove if you only grant him premises enough? Locke, while admitting this implied contract, contended that the contracting parties only surrender a portion of their individual liberties and rights, retaining others which they are competent to hold good even against the State itself. In this doctrine he was followed by Warburton in England and by many distinguished Continental jurists; amongst others by the celebrated Marquis di Beccaria,—from whom Jeremy Bentham borrowed the famous formula, "the greatest happiness of the greatest number." Long practically recognized in the English constitution, notwithstanding the contrary assertion by Burke,—this doctrine is now rapidly spreading among civilized communities. "No man," says the Italian jurist just named, "ever gave up his liberty for the mere good of mankind." Nor is any one competent to un-make and negative his own manhood. Fortune, pleasure, even life, a man may, on reasonable need, sacrifice for the world; but not his liberty of self-judgment,—or, in another word, his conscience. Such an attribute is imprescriptible, inalienable. In no state of political organization possible in modern times can the man be sunk in the citizen: still less can he be sunk in the mere member of the body politic. The aggregation of all powers and functions to the ruling body in those classic ages from the records of which we receive our first impressions of the course of human polity and law has had the effect of inducing men to clothe political authority with attributes which it has no right to now, and which it is incompetent to exercise. The mischief with us in England,—and we may add with men in some other countries—is this,—that we do not allow for all the consequences of this limitation of powers. We complain of the inefficiency of a power which we adopt every means at our disposal to render inoperative. We desire to reap the fruits of despotism while we enjoy the solaces of freedom. Perhaps Beccaria is right when he says,—“Every man desires to be exempt from the obligations which bind the rest of the world.”

Even a cursory review of the past will show us that the political state was not the earliest form of society. The family, the religious society, the commune—each with its acknowledged laws

and ordinances—existed before the kingdom or the commonwealth. After a time, the State drew all other powers and functions unto itself,—but only for a time. The older elements of the social condition again separated themselves from the alliance. At first religion. Christianity clove the unity of Roman power. The infant church—denying the spiritual authority of the Pontifex Maximus, and making a code of independent laws, over which neither emperor nor senate had any control, for itself—grew up in the heart of the imperial dominions a state within the state. This was the real cause of the persecutions instituted against the rising sect under the empire. The Christians acknowledged an alien law,—a law not proceeding from Rome, but from Jerusalem; and statesmen could not avoid seeing that this was an axe to cut away the root of their country's power. Under this view of the case, we can understand how even wise and politic pagans should have been led into cruel measures of repression; their object being to save the State, not merely out of wantonness or zeal to oppress a new religious sect. The distrust and dislike of the Christians manifested by men like Tacitus, Trajan, and Antoninus admits only of some such reasonable explanation: the fact that several of the wisest and most statesmanlike of the Roman emperors were their severest repressors should not escape attention.

As Christianity rose from the dust, these powers gradually departed from the State. The Church grew up by its side, as much a rival as an ally. The iron unity was broken; and the sentiment of individual freedom, long buried in a trance, rose again from the rest of ages. The revival of this sentiment is often ascribed to the migration of the Northmen into the Roman world: no doubt they presented a more genial soil for its growth than the effete inhabitants of Italy, Gaul, and Iberia. All the powers were not, however, at once set free. Under the long reign of the Feudal Law, the old doctrine that the State is paramount proprietor of the soil was maintained; under the pontifical hierarchy the influences of family and of general opinion were wielded by the Church. It is only in comparatively recent times that all these spheres are beginning to move independently. Perfect harmony among them is neither to be hoped nor desired. Antagonism is the great condition of a progressive life. Without antagonism there is no agitation, without agitation no activity, without activity no movement. We advance by conflict,—conflict of intellect, of moral forces, of truth and error, of right and wrong. Each sphere in which the governing power resides is a check upon the rest,—a security against usurpations. For centuries the Church was the ally of Freedom against political tyranny. Wealth—the offspring of property—has often joined with the Free Spirit to resist the aggressions of the priest. Opinion has taken its part against the tyranny of wealth. The Family has even been a refuge against the blighting curse of an unjust Opinion. We have come in fact, or are fast coming, to a balance of these powers. No one of them separately can now play the despot. This circumstance should be well considered. State affairs do not now make up the business of life. A man's happiness depends more on the order of his family than on the constitution of government. Politics are not all-important to modern Europeans. With the Athenian it was different. In his day the State was omnipotent. He was compelled to be a politician, because all his interests were involved in politics. He could not safely leave the affairs of the commonwealth to other hands. Now, the State is comparatively unimportant;

and though it is fit that every man take an intelligent interest in his country's weal, large masses are not compelled to devote a great portion of their time to it. It is wise to consider soberly the value of merely political rights. Social position is far more useful—social influence much more potential for good. It is doubtful whether the people of this country would not rather sacrifice the Reform Bill than the Penny Postage Act, if the alternative were forced on them; and we believe there are many who would give up Magna Charta in preference to Free Trade. They would do this not because devoted to gain and indifferent to liberty, but simply from a conviction that political rights are of little real importance in this stage of the world's growth. Government—at least such as that of England, or still more particularly that of the United States—has been denuded of so many powers that it has hardly any left. Opinion is now its absolute master. And it is fortunate that it is so: because opinion is a moral agent, which constrains with dignity or coerces without violence. But the same controlling and conservative power is exerted over refractory individuals—or, as Mr. Dick, in one of his very few felicitous passages, observes:—

"The right of using the Moral instruments of coercion has not been confined to any particular man or any body of men in society, but has been conferred on all men individually and indiscriminately. Whence it happens that every manifestation of wrong, every outbreak of vice, is the cause of many triumphs of virtue; for multitudes flock, as it were, to the rescue; and the moral discipline which their minds go through, while healing the wound that society has received, and coercing its vicious author, sharpens their sense of right, exalts their ideas of duty, and leaves them every way better than it found them. Hence, to a fanciful view, vice in the world seems like a man walking through a field of flowers, where every step forces out of the fair things it treads on a fresh stream of fragrance."

In speaking of the constitution of England, Mr. Dick says it is a work of nature and not of art. This is a mere paradox. It is a common trick of our time to boast that our constitution has not been made—but has *grown*. If this mean anything, it means that its different parts have been conquered and created at long intervals of time, as special acts of oppression have forced the people to take up arms against their tyrants, and wrest from them the power of wrong-doing: in other words, that it is the result of barbarous revolutions in semi-barbaric times, when political knowledge was buried in the ruins of southern Europe. Perhaps it may be said to be a work of Nature inasmuch as it bears no marks of the order, system, sequence, and completeness which Art implies. But this is a point which we refrain from discussing with Mr. Dick. It is fair, however, that we allow him to present the *résumé* of his argument,—which is as follows.—

"We have seen reason to conclude, *First*, that political power consists of physical power employed in determining peacefully the resolutions of the State;—*Secondly*, that political power is distributed among the members of a community in proportion to the amount which each of them commands of the physical power of which it consists;—*Thirdly*, that political power owes neither its existence nor its particular distribution among a people to the mere laws and constitution; but is the effect of all those circumstances and influences operating generally from remote periods in a nation's history, by which the character and relations of the men composing it have been moulded and determined;—*Fourthly*, that the allocation or distribution of political power, of which experience gives us notice, may be reduced to three simple states. The first is where political power is individualized; being the result of a condition of society in which all the members of the community, of whose physical power the whole political power is

composed, are single and independent political agents, and so command each only an individual portion of the power in political action. The second is where political power is feudalized or *classified*; being the result of a state of society in which the physical power employed in directing the public councils is divided into masses, of which each obeys the will of a leading head or chief. The third is where political power is monopolized; being the result of a state of society wherein the whole physical power by which the State operates is attached to the will of a single person. The state first mentioned is the democratic condition of political power; the second state is the aristocratic; and the third is the monarchic or autocratic. And the tendency of each of these social conditions to a corresponding form of constitution is so strong, that to establish a democracy, where the society is in the aristocratic condition, or *vice versa*, is to introduce an incongruity or antagonism between the disposition and wants of the people and their institutions.—*Lastly*, we have seen that a nation may present in its social condition an amalgam of the three simple modes of the distribution of political power, or of any two of them, and that now in one proportion and now in another. In which case the natural constitutional form of the nation will show a corresponding commingling of democracy with aristocracy and monarchy, or of two of them, and in such proportion as the condition of the society demands."

In conclusion, we must say that we think some of our readers will find this book interesting. Men accustomed to abstract reasoning will not care for its dryness of manner,—and those who can read it will be compensated for their trouble. It has many suggestive reflections.

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MR. TAYLOR AND THE AUTHORSHIP OF JUNIUS.

The following is Mr. Taylor's reply to certain questions asked in 'Notes and Queries' as to the authorship of 'Junius Identified.' Though dated Sept. 7, this reply was published only on Saturday last.—

"It is fortunate for my reputation that I am still living to vindicate my title to the authorship of my own book, which seems otherwise in danger of being taken from me. "I can assure your correspondent R. J. (Vol. 11, p. 103) that I was not only 'literally the writer,' (as he kindly suggests, with a view of saving my credit for having put my name to the book), but in its fullest sense the author of 'Junius Identified'; and that I never received the slightest assistance from Mr. Dubois, or any other person, either in collecting or arranging the evidence, or in the composition and correction of the work. After I had completed my undertaking, I wrote to Mr. Dubois to ask if he would allow me to see the handwriting of Sir Philip Francis, that I might compare it with the published fac-similes of the handwriting of Junius; but he refused my request. His letter alone disproves the notion entertained by R. J. and

others, that Mr. Dubois was in any degree connected with me, or with the authorship of the work in question.

"With regard to the testimony of Lord Campbell, I wrote to his Lordship in February, 1849, requesting his acceptance of a copy of 'Junius Identified,' which I thought he might not have seen; and having called his attention to my name at the end of the preface, I begged he would, when opportunity offered, correct his error in having attributed the work to Mr. Dubois. I was satisfied with his Lordship's reply, which was to the effect that he was ashamed of his mistake, and would take care to correct it. No new edition of that series of the 'Lives of the Chancellors' which contains the 'Life of Lord Loughborough' has since been published. The present edition is dated 1847.

"R. J. says further, that 'the late Mr. George Woodfall always spoke of the pamphlet as the work of Dubois; and that Sir Fortunatus Dwaris states 'the pamphlet is said, I know not with what truth, to have been prepared under the eye of Sir Philip Francis, it may be through the agency of Dubois.' If 'Junius Identified' be alluded to in these observations as a pamphlet, it would make me doubt whether R. J., or either of his authorities, ever saw the book. It is an 8vo. vol. The first edition, containing 380 pages, was published in 1816, at 12s. The second edition, which included the supplement, exceeded 400 pages, and was published in 1816, at 14s. The supplement, which contains the plates of handwriting, was sold separately at 3s. 6d., to complete the first edition, but this could not have been the pamphlet alluded to in the preceding extracts. I suspect that when the work is spoken of as a pamphlet, and this is often done, the parties thus describing it have known it only through the medium of the critique in the *Edinburgh Review*.

"Mr. Dubois was the author of the biography of Sir Philip Francis, first printed in the *Monthly Magazine* for May and June 1810, and reprinted in 'Junius Identified,' with acknowledgment of the source from which it was taken. To this biography the remarks of Sir Fortunatus Dwaris are strictly applicable, except that it never appeared in the form of a pamphlet. JOHN TAYLOR."

"30, Upper Gower Street, Sept. 7, 1850."

Now, this, so far as Mr. Taylor is concerned, is precisely the answer that we should have expected. We have given it as our opinion, not only that Mr. Taylor wrote 'Junius Identified,' but that he was sincere in the belief that he had made the "discovery" [*ante*, p. 941]. No one, indeed, acquainted with the subject can doubt that Mr. Taylor worked out the idea and illustrated it by the "morally impossible" and endless proofs from Chatham's Speeches, &c. &c.—because the working out and illustration are in the exact form adopted by him when he explained "all the mysterious circumstances" in favour of Dr. Francis by like proofs from Horace and Demosthenes. None other than a sincere man would have hazarded so many assertions and assumptions,—or published so many new speculative possibilities as if they were sober truths deduced by legitimate arguments from unquestioned facts.

This letter makes it certain, however, that Mr. Taylor was acquainted with Du Bois—the "connection," friend, or secretary of Sir Philip,—when he stumbled on the "discovery";—and, that he was not led or misled by hints, suggestions, and ambiguous givings-out is more, we submit, than Mr. Taylor himself can know—however confident and natural may be his belief to the contrary. We further learn even from the little ray of light communicated by this letter, that Francis and Du Bois acted throughout in reference to this discovery on exactly the same principles. Francis [*ante*, p. 941] called on Mr. Taylor to discourage him from pursuing his "wild-goose chase"—but offered his discouragement, our readers will remember, in a way the most certain to encourage him; and no sooner was the book published than he privately said and did everything in his power—as afterwards by testamentary bequest to his widow—to prove that the "discovery" had been made, and that he was the writer. So with Du Bois: who would not permit his friend Mr. Taylor even "to see" the handwriting of Sir Philip—as if discovery lay in every flourish of the pen, and Du Bois was conscious of it,—yet no sooner was Taylor's book published than he did privately everything in his power, by word and by deed, and at last by testamentary gossip through Sir Fortunatus Dwaris, to encourage the belief that Francis was the man.—The "discouragement," be it further observed, was of a character not merely to whet the appetite, but at the same time to throw no obstruction in the way of the inquirer; for in 1816 Mr. Taylor could have obtained sight or possession of a dozen specimens of Francis's handwriting for probably as many shillings.

JENNY LIND IN AMERICA.

THE Americans do everything on a grand scale,—even their enthusiasm. By taking often, however, the very narrowest basis for the gigantic superstructure, they contrive to give to their enthusiasm a tipsy look.—The whole people of New York is now reeling to and fro under the Lind intoxication. The event of the Swedish singer's touching their shores marks an era in the history of that great and go-a-head people. The arrival of Columbus in the West was a less significant event.—"Alla Akbar, the Caliph's in Meru." "Jenny's in New York," "Jenny's in America," shout the papers—they can scarcely credit their own great fortune. They go about asking one another if it can be true.—The Liverpool penny-a-lining on the subject of the Nightingale—and yet more the Liverpool excitement if it were therein truly represented—were something which made men turn away sick and ashamed; but even in Liverpool, though they did their best, they have no notion of a folly on the American dimensions. The genius of hyperbole seems here to have exhausted itself on a negation. The gentle little Lady has come amongst them to sing a few of her pastoral airs "for a consideration,"—and they greet her with a perfect Niagara of welcome. We never remember child's play performed before by such a company. The whole thing looks like a vast "make-believe." America seems to have no serious business in life; and the whole people—bishops, magistrates and all—are engaged in a huge game of "High Jinks."

Jenny landed on a Sunday,—and the churches were at once deserted for the new religion:—for "was she not," as their journals say, "raised up by the Great Spirit to make the rest of the world humble while they adore his power!" The heart of America had been looking anxiously out for the Nightingale over the Atlantic,—and the moment she came in sight America stood on her head. She recovered her feet only by a summer-set,—and has been tumbling before the Swede ever since. All the stars of the Union have dimmed before the star of Jenny Lind. She walked like a conqueror from the ship to the dock gates under an arcade of evergreens,—and at its entrance the American eagle (stuffed) offered her flowers. All New York hung around her chariot on its way to the Irving House,—where she was lodged like a princess; and at midnight thirty thousand persons hovered round her hotel. At one in the morning one hundred and fifty musicians came up to serenade her, led by seven hundred firemen—to pump upon the enthusiasm, we suppose, in case it should get red hot.

There is no end to the incredible antics that are played in presence of the simple event of a singer's arrival in the Transatlantic capital. The papers, as if it were the one important event of the age, have taken to report her minutest movements; and that they may put order into the record—which covers columns upon columns of their space—they have divided it into sections, headed "First day," "Second day," &c. They had got as far as the tenth day at the last arrivals.—"Jenny Lind," says the *Weekly Herald*, "is the most popular woman in the world at this moment,—perhaps the most popular that ever was in it." The same paper, in terms which prove that all self-possession is gone in presence of the subject, speaks of the "Nightingale's" warblings as things "which she spins out from her throat like the attenuated fibre from the silkworm, dying away so sweetly and so gradually, till it seems melting into the song of the seraphim and is lost in eternity." This confusion between silk worms and seraphim is highly American.—The first ticket for Jenny Lind's first concert sold for 45s.—It has become a distinction even to be likely to hear her,—and the papers actually publish the names of those who have bought tickets.—They have also thought it worth while to print a *fac-simile* of the card which is to admit the public to hear her.—Barnum is recommended to keep "shady" during the Lind's visit,—and after her departure to set himself up as a show for having brought her. He is assured that he will make money by it. ["Je ne suis pas la rose,—mais j'ai vécu près d'elle."—Mr. Barnum

has selected a private secretary to help him during Jenny's stay in America; and the papers enter on a statement of the qualifications which fit him so well for the situation, as if he were a Secretary of State. Curiously enough, a leading qualification is, that he has held military situations in Canada.—The journals are not ashamed to feed their columns with stories like the following.—

"Two or three ladies were on the balcony, but it was too dark to distinguish whether Jenny was one of the select party. The crowd, however, imagined she was there, and that was sufficient for them. One of the ladies, after eating a peach, threw the stone over the balcony,—when a tremendous rush took place to secure what was presumed to be a precious memento of the fair songstress, and a regular street fight nearly ensued.—Another story freely circulated is, that a glove of Jenny's has been picked up, and the fortunate finder is charging (so it is reported) 1s. for an outside kiss and 2s. for an inside kiss of the article."

Seven hundred and fifty competitors contended for the prize offered by Barnum for a song which Jenny is to sing:—and here is one of the strangest bits of all. The song selected is one filled with fulsome adulation of herself; and America having done in the matter what she can by all her organs, Jenny Lind is finally set to sing her own praises before New York assembled. This is a superlative piece of Americanism.—It is curious to see how the common purpose running through these songs has suggested a common application of their various themes. The thing is done after the manner of Moses & Son,—beginning with any subject the poet likes and bringing Jenny in in the last verse. The papers publish some of the rejected—offered by their authors by way of shaming the judges; and a quotation of one in which the Lind is made, very inartificially indeed, the American banner bearer, will exhibit the manner of the trick to those who do not read habitually the great advertisements.

Our Country's Flag.

Fling out to the winds our banner bright,
In the wide blue air let it wave;
For, wherever is seen its starry light,
It gleams with a power to save!
To the North and South, to the East and West,
It marches in victory's path;
A beacon of hope to the wronged and oppressed,
To oppressors a frown of wrath.
God's benison cleave to the flag unfurled
By the hand of Washington!
May it float in the breeze till the whole broad world
Lies basking in freedom's sun.
Let it fly o'er the ocean to every strand,
Where his restless surges roll;
From the isles of eternal summer bland,
To the ices of either pole.
Aye, pointing afar o'er the Atlantic's foam,
To the Eden-land of the West,
Where the wronged of all nations may find a home,
With freedom and plenty blessed.
Then out with our flag to the dallying breeze;
Its folds let the sunbeams kiss;
For the Sun in his whole long journey sees
No gladder sight than this.
Let it fly where men in bondage pine,
And their ruthless tyrants shall flee,
And the rising day-star shall only shine
On a race of the happy free!
We are proud of our flag, o'er prouder still
Shall our leaving bosoms swell,
As we list to the Northern song-bird's trill
To the banner we love so well!

Now, if Mdle. Jenny Lind have a particle of the good sense and simplicity of character which are ascribed to her, the whole of these proceedings must affect her as both painful and revolting. To be the goddess of a mad worship like this can yield her no pleasure if she has ever looked truth in the face. Gratitude for the warmth of her welcome must be marred by shame for the actors in it and suffering for herself.—Yet it must be avowed that Mdle. Lind seems to do her simplicities with a somewhat suspicious consciousness, and to lend herself designedly to the American sentiment,—accepting the altar which they have dressed for her even while she appears modestly to decline it.—As the steamer which bore her and her fortunes approached the city, the American flag waved from the shipping and from the public buildings; and Jenny Lind, kissing her hand to it, exclaimed: "There is the beautiful standard of freedom, which is worshipped by the oppressed of all nations!" This was phrasing after the American fashion.—They played her 'Yankee Doodle,'—and she asked them to play it again.—During her second rehearsal somebody had somehow found time to fire the

artillery guns in celebration of the admission of California into the Sisterhood of States,—and Jenny was interrupted; but she said she did not mind, "as it was for the good of the country." That remains to be proved; but not the less was this remark another phrase nicely suited to the time and place.—But let us quote Mdle. Lind's dialogue with Major Woodhall.—

"Next came Major Woodhall, to tender the enchantress the welcome of the city of New York, and then proceeded to shower compliments on Mademoiselle. He said:—'We have heard Malibran and other singers, but we all know you are the Queen of Song.'"

"Jenny Lind (interrupting him).—You frighten me. Everybody frightens me with too much praise. I fear I shall never come to the expectations formed of me. I have been spoiled with flattery twice before, and I fear I shall be spoiled again."

"Major.—We know that you are accustomed to this, and that it cannot injure you. We think you worthy of it. 'No; it is always new to me. I cannot accustom myself to it. There is too much friendship shown me. I am full of imperfections, and if you continue to flatter me in this way, I shall tremble when I come to sing.'"

This admission of imperfections in the full splendour of her attributed divinity reminds us pleasantly of two speak it without meaning offence to Mdle. Lind) of a certain well-known character who declared himself to be but a man, though a beadle.

It is to be remembered, however, that the preposterous part which Mdle. Jenny Lind is made to play in this Transatlantic demonstration is not of her own seeking; and that even the record of what she is supposed to say and do must be received with great caution as reported by those who, bent on erecting her into a goddess, of course desire to exhibit her as oracular. Meantime, we know not what the next American arrivals can well bring us in the way of climax to all these things—if it be not the announcement that Jenny Lind has sung "Yankee Doodle," and that the Americans have elected her as a separate and independent State into the Union.

FOREIGN CORRESPONDENCE.

The Island of Capri.

Naples.

It was on a bright sunny morning in the spring of this year that a large party of whom I was one found themselves on board the good steam ship *The Brighton*, making a round of the Bay of Naples.—There were amongst us diplomatists without number:—the British and Spanish and Austrian ambassadors, and Swiss *chargés d'affaires* here and at the Papal Court, besides the Greek Consul-General, and how many Princes and Dukes I cannot tell. A lovelier morning could not have dawned on us even in Naples,—and as we steered out of port, the grand panorama of the Bay could not have appeared to greater advantage. To those who know the Bay of Naples it would be superfluous to expatiate on the scenery which presented itself as we coasted along to the Cape of Misenum,—the Villa with its shady avenues, terminated by the Grotto of Posilippo, above which reposes Virgil in his traditional sepulchre. Then, the shore of Posilippo, so charming that, as its name indicates, Greek fancy styled it *The Chaser-away of Grief*. Nor need I speak of Pozzuoli, with its classical and geological interest,—nor of Baia with its ruined temples, palaces and villas,—nor of ought else until we arrive at the Island of Capri,—which I have long desired to recommend as a residence to the dilettant and to the man of straitened means.

Capri is an island more beautiful and picturesque perhaps than any of the Greek islands,—which, with one or two exceptions, are after all beautiful only by courtesy. On the little beach which receives the traveller once lay bleaching (according to the tradition of the island) the bones of those who were allured by the Syrens: the fishermen's boats now cover it,—and here in a number of whitewashed cottages that bound the narrow strip of shore reside the fishing population of the island. A steep acclivity and five hundred narrow steps cut in the solid perpendicular rock lead to Anacapri,—celebrated for its olives and commanding views; but we will take a narrow path which conducts to the lower part of the island and pass through the village of Capri.

It would be out of place to enter into a minute description of the natural features of the island. Winding paths through olive grounds and vineyards bring the step at every moment to some fresh point of view. Rude crags on whose summits rest some Roman or Middle-Age ruin shoot up into the very heavens. Yonder on that rocky mountain is a palace of Tiberius,—and near it the ruins of a Fanale which fell down, says Suetonius, the night before that emperor died. Opposite is a ruined tower of Barbarossa,—not the emperor, but the buccaneer. Amid all this rocky grandeur is intermingled the most varied and luxuriant vegetation. *Arbutus*, *laurustinus*, and myrtle here vie with one another in wild profusion. Twice in the year—in the spring and in the autumn—the ground is carpeted with the most lovely flowers,—amongst which I remember to have seen every species of the *cistus*; while the rocks are covered with lichens, ferns, and other mountain herbs. Not only has Nature been bountiful to Capri,—Man, too, has done his part; so that what from a distance appears to be a mere barren rock the stranger on landing is surprised to find a highly cultivated and productive country. Here the vine and the olive are more grateful perhaps than in any other part of the kingdom,—for the wine and oil of this island are more esteemed at Naples than those of any other part of the country. Fruits, too, of every description abound; and so great is the kindness of the soil that I believe the traveller's walking-stick would sprout were he to leave it in the ground. Such, in fact, are the grandeur and beauty of the scenery and such is the fertility of the soil, that it has often been matter of wonder to me that more of my wandering countrymen have not found a resting-place here. The stream of foreigners, however, sets in principally to Castellamare and Sorrento; where, baked by a burning sun or wearied by a languid air, and paying English prices, they settle down from June to October,—instead of trying the refreshing breezes and enjoying the sublime scenery of Capri.

To come to something more practical,—and speak of the economical advantages which Capri presents as a residence. I know of no place better suited to the invalid or to the man of small income. The air is here so salubrious and bracing that a twenty-four hours' residence seems to fill the veins with fresh life,—especially after the soft and enervating air of Sorrento. It is this elasticity of limb and spirit, perhaps, which makes the natives say that man lives here too quickly. To speak of the effects of the climate of Capri on certain maladies—bronchitis, for instance:—Many cases of its restorative effects might be cited,—one in particular of a physician, who has just completed a residence here of sixteen months. For hectic complaints I doubt whether the island could be recommended; but for chronic bronchitis I know of no place, after considerable experience, so desirable as a residence. Why it should be so, I cannot tell,—except that there is nothing volcanic in the formation of the island, that the water is good and the air dry and salubrious.

As a place for economizing pecuniarily, I think the island may vie with any part of Germany. House rent, which in these parts generally is so heavy an article of expenditure, is here a mere trifle. A number of houses, no longer occupied, lie scattered about the island, which twenty-four hours' labour would set in order, and which might be had for a merely nominal rent. I speak from some well-known cases when I say that 3*l.* 10*s.* a-year would secure a small house, unfurnished, containing three or four rooms, a kitchen, and a small garden; while larger houses, with considerable portions of land, may be had for from 80 to 90 ducats (about 15*l.* a-year),—the land producing annually four or five pipes of wine, together with fruits and vegetables and other produce enough for the supply of the table after covering the rent. Should any one desire to purchase land, so exhausted and poverty stricken are the inhabitants generally of the rural districts that it might be bought to great advantage,—and with good cultivation might be made to yield from six to seven per cent. profit. Nor is Capri without its resources in the way of amusement. The sea

tempts to fish; and the land twice in the year abounds with quails and woodcocks, snipes and grèbes,—while 12*s.* will buy a certificate. If the resident is dull and wants a change, there is daily communication with the main land (which at the nearest point is from three to four miles distant),—sometimes three or four times a day; and 8*d.* or 10*d.* will take him, twenty-seven miles, to Naples. As to food, it is cheap and abundant:—eggs being a farthing each, the best fish 4*d.* or 5*d.* a pound, and poultry 10*d.* or 1*s.* for a fine capon,—whilst wine of the finest quality may be bought at 1*d.* or 2*d.* the bottle, and fruits for a song. I need only add, that the character of the people is so mild that you may walk at any hour and anywhere in safety,—and returning to your house, may sleep with your doors open. The island possesses two very decent hotels,—which in the summer time are filled with artists.

OUR WEEKLY GOSSIP.

THE Commissioners of Woods and Forests have at length, in answer to the outcry of the press, stated officially what they are about to do with St. James's Park. According to this statement, Mr. Nesfield's plan is really abandoned,—and they have no design upon any portion of the lake. Their purpose is, simply to widen and square the road in front of the Palace, according to a plan which we find published in the *Gardeners' Chronicle* of Saturday last. Now, that this plan shows a great improvement so far as the Palace is concerned, is not to be denied; and if the powers which mismanage these things had come before the public at first with a proper statement of their wishes, probably not a single voice would have been raised against it. Whatever suspicion and unpopularity have arisen in the matter, the Commissioners have brought on themselves by the mystery with which they chose to invest their earlier proceedings.—They say not a word, however, even now, about the marble arch, and as to why the Green Park has been so needlessly disfigured to provide for it a temporary resting-place. There is such a manifest absurdity in turning a portion of the greensward into warehouse room for this arch-puzzle, that the public for the sake of a generous interpretation as to the sanity of Lord Seymour is driven necessarily into the suspicion of some inferior design of the nature of Mr. Nesfield's plans. But at any rate and after all, one fact remains:—there has in this case been a certain amount of tampering,—and that arbitrarily,—with the Parks. The free spaces within which the people can recreate themselves at all have year by year been contracted by the spreading tyranny of brick and mortar,—and are now positively restricted, so far as the metropolis and its purlieus are concerned, to these Parks. If they were looked on as a sacred possession when London streets were belted with broad meadows sown with gold, and a wealth of primroses gave its name to what is yet the people's hill,—they are now the very lungs of labour, and the common right which the multitude has in them is the right of pasture to the life's blood. Every encroachment on them should be made in a fearful and conscientious spirit,—and must be watched with a jealous eye. The people are a loyal people, and will grant freely to an honest demand what it is not almost a sin to concede. But they who touch the Parks should put themselves above suspicion,—and the least attempt at secrecy where they are concerned should be interpreted into aggression by those who are guardians of the people's cause.

Our attention has been drawn to a Society to be called "The British National Flora and Naturalists' Corresponding Society;" the objects of which are to be, to perfect our knowledge of the existence and distribution of British plants, and to facilitate the exchange of specimens between botanists in different parts of the country. These objects are proposed to be carried out by distributing a list of plants to all the members,—who are required to indicate those which have come under their own local observation by a mark. They will also indicate at the same time what plants they possess not belonging to the locality, and what they may require.—In this way we make no doubt that the objects of the Society may be attained.

At the same time, we think it would be worth the while of the promoters to ascertain if any of the older Societies—the Botanical, for instance—could not accomplish all these designs. We are entirely opposed to the needless multiplication of Societies, —although quite alive to the fact that there are occasionally specialities which may be pursued better independently than in company with other projects.—The Secretary of the new Society is Mr. Douglas H. Campbell, of Chloë Grange, near Stroud.

The daily papers give the particulars of a desperate outrage committed on the person of Mr. Cureton, the well-known curator of coins, medals and other antiquities in the British Museum; the materials of his art being the temptation to the crime,—as its details were made the pretext by means of which it was perpetrated. On Saturday last three fashionably attired men called at his lodging, and inquired if he had by him a crown-piece of William and Mary. Mr. Cureton replied in the affirmative; and while preparing to find the coin, an instrument was passed and tightened round his neck, and a blow over the right eye deprived him of sensation. It is hoped now that Mr. Cureton will recover,—but his life, if saved, was saved only by the fact of his landlady happening to go immediately into the room, and finding him almost suffocated and speechless on the floor. The robbers carried off coins, medals, &c. to the value of 300*l*. The property taken away was deposited in sundry cabinets,—and consisted, amongst other things, of crown and half-crown pieces of Oliver Cromwell, King Alfred, and numerous Saxon coins.—We give the narrative of this outrage that we may assist in rendering the sale of these coins impossible, or help in making the attempt to circulate them lead to the detection of the robbers.—Speaking of this robbery, we may mention, that the M. Diamila who was arrested last year, as the reader will recollect, on a charge of having stolen a number of valuable coins and medals from the Vatican Library, has been condemned and sentenced to twenty years' service in the galleys. Some of the stolen articles have been traced to other collections,—but the major part of the property, it is believed, cannot be recovered.

The bardic glories of the Eisteddfod are this year revived with greater pretence at splendour than heretofore. The festival is held in the ruins of Rhuddlan Castle,—once a border fortress of great strength, and the scene of the famous statute of Rhuddlan enacted in the spirit of a royal lie. The benefits accruing to the country from that subterfuge are not, however, to be measured by the morality of the monarch who planned it; and the present idle appeal to the spirit of the past is a thing as false as was the pretence of Edward,—involving an evil where he founded a good. If this festival had no other object than to promote the study of Welsh history, literature and customs, for the amusement of the unoccupied and the information of the scholar, we should have nothing to say about it. Undertaken with good purpose such exhibitions might present points of use and interest,—if not, they would simply fall into the category of harmless follies. But in our view of the matter, the Eisteddfod is a serious wrong to Wales. It is intended by the feudal chiefs who are at the trouble and expense of getting it up to foster local habits, the exclusive use of the Welsh tongue, and the whole tribe of prejudices which already flourish in the Principality to a greater extent than in any other part of England:—in fact, as they announce, to promote the feeling of a distinct nationality. Against an absurdity so full of mischief to the Welsh peasant or artisan—whose only chance of rising to the level of his Scotch or English compeer lies in speedily casting away his “national” ideas, implements, and habits, and adopting those of his fellow-countrymen—we have again and again protested. Why, the very scene of the festival had its morals for those who could read them. An old ruin is the proper place for the Eisteddfod. It—and the idea which inspires it—do not belong to a land of railways and electric wires.—The Dean of Bangor seems to have given great offence by an attempt to turn the meeting to better account than that of a mere *Laudator tem-*

poris acti:—but Mr. Hicks Owen, the vicar of Treimichion, restored the gloom,—shutting out the intrusive light which the Dean had let in with the old rotten Principality shutters.

On Thursday in last week the Inauguration of the Coronation Stone of the Anglo-Saxon kings took place at Kingston in the presence of the mayor and corporation, attended by the burgesses and a numerous assembly of visitors. This stone, until lately, stood on the north side of the old church. According to Speed, as our readers have already been informed, nine of our Saxon monarchs were crowned in Kingston, the stone being used as the royal seat during the ceremony. It has been removed during the present mayoralty to the centre of an open space near the Savings Bank, directly opposite High Street, at the turning into the Portsmouth Road. There it is placed on a heptagonal pedestal of granite, which stands on a circular base of the same material. It being uncertain whether two of the kings mentioned by Speed were crowned at Kingston, the corporation have selected the following seven, whose names, with the dates of their respective coronations, are inscribed on the faces of the pedestal, viz.:—Athelstane, A.D. 924; Edward, A.D. 940; Edred, A.D. 946; Edgar, A.D. 959; Edward II. A.D. 975; Ethelred II. A.D. 979; and Edmund II. A.D. 1016. The monument is encompassed with iron railings, having a pillar finished with pinnacles at each of the seven angles.

Recent advices from Madras report that a project is on foot in that presidency for sending over to England two natives of the country, to be present and give evidence at the approaching discussion of the East India Company's charter. The facts which have been brought to public knowledge within the last few years—and with which the reader of the *Athenæum* is familiar—regarding the administration of justice, the management of the post-office, the general character of the Anglo-Indian army, and other matters affecting in no favourable way the cause of civilization in the East, have made out a strong case for deep and searching inquiry before Parliament renews for another term of twenty years the imperial power of the Leadenhall Street merchants. In the interests of justice and national honour, the mind of Hindustan ought to be represented in this country when the charter is under consideration by the legislature.—We hope this project will be carried into effect.

An account is given in the Continental papers of a great Congress of medical men which it is proposed to hold in France, for the purpose of testing by experiment the virtue of a newly-discovered cure for madness and for the bites of venomous serpents by means of “cedrone” seed. It seems that two subjects, M. Auguste Guillemin and M. Hippolyte Fournier, Professor of Mathematics of the department of Aveyron, have offered themselves to be operated on—which means, we suppose, that they offer to let themselves be bitten—for the purposes of the inquiry. “It has been thought advisable,” says the *Brussels Herald*, “to postpone until next month the experiment to be tried on M. Auguste Guillemin, in order to afford sufficient time for all the celebrated medical men of France and other parts of Europe to meet together at this sort of medical Congress, in which one of the most difficult problems of occult medicine is to be resolved. It is announced that all the different States of Europe will be represented at this meeting: Russia, by a physician attached to the person of the Emperor; the German States, by seventeen doctors; and Sweden, Norway and Denmark will send delegates, although in those cold regions there are but few serpents and cases of madness are rare.—Some of the cedrone seed will be sown in the *Jardin des Plantes*—where it is hoped it will succeed. Several of the faculty, who have already made experiments on different animals, hope, by means of the cedrone seed, to arrive at the cure of mental disorders and epilepsy.”—We know nothing more of this subject than is involved in these paragraphs.

A Congress of Philologists is to meet at Berlin on the 3rd of October, under the presidency of the well-known Hellenist, M. de Boeckh. The Minister

of Public Instruction has contributed 1,000 thalers towards the object.—At Leipsic a Congress of Ornithologists is to assemble on the 10th of the same month.

The Academy of Sciences in Paris is at present engaged in considering the practicability of a railway across the Channel which divides England from France. The project—which seems to combine the real suggestions of science with the sort of poetic calumetry that applies them dreamily—originated with M. F. Lemaître,—and may be briefly described as follows.—On a solid foundation on either side of the Channel, the projector proposes to build high and strong abutments, into which huge chains stretching across from shore to shore in the air would be secured. To support in the air this massive weight of iron for the twenty miles of space between the Dover abutment and that at Calais, the projector makes use of a formidable apparatus of balloons, of elliptical shape, firmly fastened to the chains. These, it is thought, would do away with any need of support from below; but lest the balloons should fly away with the iron work altogether, M. Lemaître proposes to sink four heavily laden barges at every hundred yards' distance, under the great chains, and connected with them by means of other chains. Having adjusted the length of these attaching irons to the depth of the sea at each point, an equilibrium would be attained between the sunk barge and the floating balloons. Assuming that the gases never escaped, the sunk vessels never got disturbed,—as one of the thousand accidents occurred to which such a bridge would be liable—it would remain thus suspended between the two countries,—and the balloon would at length have found an office of dignity. Held by the chains so suspended, M. Lemaître proposes to establish an atmospheric railway!—Visionary as the scheme sounds, we are assured by the French papers that it is seriously occupying the attention of the Academy. Fancy travelling over a bridge held by balloons in a high gale! The thing is at any rate very picturesque. How lame are all the wonders of Eastern fable before the projects—and the performances—of the present scientific age!

The telegraphic system of lines is rapidly approaching to a state of completion in Germany. On the 1st of October the whole will be ready for service. From Aix-la-Chapelle to Trieste, from Buda to Stettin, messages may be sent in a few seconds. The net-work is in a state of great forwardness in France and Belgium. The morning papers already give the latest telegraphic news from Germany and Italy, as well as from France; and before many weeks are passed we shall have yesterday's intelligence from Berlin and Vienna just as rapidly and regularly as we have now that of the fire in the City and the accident on the Eastern Counties Railway. Meantime, one more of the familiar forms of our life at home is finally disappearing,—the old Semaphores are all coming down. They were wonders in their way once,—and men seemed to have gained a new power as they watched their hieroglyphic writing in the air. But they are condemned now because they are neither fast enough nor keen enough for the times. Thought has sharpened up Mechanics to keep pace with her own work. The old Semaphore could neither report with the speed of light nor work in the dark.

Among the many agents, resulting from the scientific triumphs of the time, which are helping to re-mould the social materials around us, we can neither overlook nor undervalue the Cheap Excursion system. We have before remarked on the limited horizon which the fathers of the present generation enjoyed. Little more than half a century ago there was hardly any perceptible movement of the population. The country gentleman who had passed a fortnight of his life in London, the artisan and the farmer who were acquainted with the adjacent districts and had perhaps witnessed the splendours of a county town, were regarded with envy or admiration as men who had seen the world. The clown lived and died on the spot where he was born,—was morally the serf of the particular soil. Each hamlet was its own world. The swell and surge of life in towns a score or two

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of miles away carried faint and indistinct echoes to the general ear,—and local idioms and dialects stood like barriers between the men born in one county and those born in the next. The Yorkshire shepherd whom accident carried to the western slopes of Blackstone Edge, or the Gloucester peasant who found himself on the Somersetshire side of the Cotswold Hills, could barely make himself understood or procure the assistance that he might need as a stranger. Like a country broken into minute subdivisions by hedges that at once separate and occupy the ground where better things should grow,—abstracting from the general nourishment for its own unwholesome vegetation,—the social surface was physically partitioned by accidents that grew a plentiful crop of prejudices and ignorances, vicious in themselves, and diverting the moral sap that should have helped to beautify the land. The masses of the people were separated from each other as by seas and alps:—the great majority passed out of existence almost strangers to their countrymen and to the fair face of their native island.—All this has been gradually changed by every step that science has taken in advance. The migrations caused by the rise of the cotton manufacture did much to break down the old barriers,—railways and monster trains have done, or are doing, the rest. The morally poetic is displacing the picturesque,—the spiritual beauty replacing the material. If the fairies have fled before the steam whistle from many a sylvan scene,—so have the old local tyrannies that made men moral slaves. Provincialism of speech and of thought are fast disappearing. Every man now travels more or less; each has made some acquaintance with the aspects of nature,—understood and enjoyed some part of that heritage of beauty and those conquests of mind which make our wealth as a nation,—seen something of men who live under social and material conditions different from his own. The agencies by which this education has been given on so grand a scale are amongst the most valuable fruits of modern civilization. Men gather both health and strength, and wisdom and godhead by extending their horizons. How remarkable is the rapidity with which the desire to move about has grown,—proving the desire a natural one, and the stifling of it a privation. Little more than half a score of years since, the first excursion trains were timidly tried as an experiment:—they are now organized throughout the length and breadth of the country. The statistics of excursions would be interesting in more than one point of view. From the metropolis alone it is stated that a million and a half of persons have availed themselves of cheap trains during the present summer, to see with their own eyes what, like all else, under the old conditions they could only have heard of—and that only as the narrator chose to present it. Every morning hundreds and thousands are whirled out of the smoke of London into the fresh air of heaven. One day last week no less than ten huge excursion trains left by the several lines of railway. Some of the pleasure seekers went to enjoy a day among the hop-gardens of Kent,—some sought the open downs of Epsom,—not a few explored the regal glories of old Windsor. The sylvan beauties of the Isle of Wight attracted many,—a party visited the wonders of Stonehenge,—another made the old exclusive colleges and cloisters of Oxford start at this irruption of the people,—and hundreds drank the sea breezes from cliff or pier at Brighton, Dover, Folkstone, Ramsgate, and Southampton. The military works at Gooport came in for civic criticisms,—and the once fashionable promenades of Bath received a host of visitors with no fear of Beau Nashes in their hearts. One train went down to Cambridge,—and the afternoon landed the last party at the hotels of the Rue Richelieu in Paris!—Nevertheless, the excursion system is only in its infancy.

THE DIORAMA, Regent's Park.—Admission, One Shilling.—NOW OPEN, with the finest VIEWS ever exhibited in this country, representing the ROYAL CASTLE of STOLZENFELS, on the Rhine, visited by Her Majesty Queen Victoria in August, 1841, and the Environs, as seen at Sunset and during a Thunder Storm; painted by NICHOLAS MEISTER, of Cologne. And the celebrated Picture of THE SHRINE OF THE NATIVITY, at Bethlehem; painted by the late M. RENOUX, from a Sketch made on the spot by David Roberts, Esq. R.A., with novel and striking effects.—Open from Ten till Five.

THE NILE.—WILL SHORTLY CLOSE.—The Proprietors being about to remove the Diorama from London will exhibit it for a short period at the following greatly REDUCED PRICES:—Gallery, 6d., Pit, 1s., Stalls, 2s.—EGYPTIAN HALL, PICCADILLY.—Daily, at Three and Eight o'clock.

INDIA OVERLAND MAIL.—DIORAMA.—GALLERY of ILLUSTRATION, 14, Regent-street, Waterloo-place.—A Gigantic MOVING DIORAMA of the ROUTE of the OVERLAND MAIL to INDIA, exhibiting the following places, viz.—Southampton Docks, Isle of Wight, Osborne, the Needles, the Bay of Biscay, the Berlinga, Olinda, the Tagus, Cape Trafalgar, Tarifa, Gibraltar, Algiers, Malta, Alexandria, Cairo, the Desert of Suez, the Central Station, Suez, the Red Sea, Aden, Ceylon, Madras, and Calcutta—is now OPEN DAILY.—Mornings at Twelve, Afternoons at Three, and Evenings at Eight.—Admission, 1s.; Stalls, 2s.; Reserved Seats, 3s. Doors open half an hour before each representation.

ROYAL POLYTECHNIC INSTITUTION.
LECTURE on the BALLAD MUSIC of ENGLAND, by Mr. George Barker, illustrated by his own compositions, every Evening (except Saturday) at Eight o'clock.—LECTURE on the HYDRO-ELECTRIC MACHINE, by Dr. Bachoffner, daily at Two, and on Tuesday and Thursday Evenings at a Quarter-past Nine.—LECTURE on CHEMISTRY, by J. H. Pepper, Esq., illustrating the ANCIENT FIERY ORDEAL and the HANDLING of RED-HOT METALS, daily at a Quarter-past Three, and on Monday, Wednesday, and Friday Evenings at a Quarter-past Nine.—MODEL of WESTON'S PATENT NOVA-MOTIVE RAILWAY at work daily.—NEW SERIES of DISSOLVING VIEWS, illustrating some of the WONDERS of NATURE, daily at Half-past Four, and in the Evenings at a Quarter to Ten; also a Series, exhibiting SCENES in the ARCTIC REGIONS and CEYLON, daily at One o'clock.—DIVER and DIVING BELLS, &c.—Admission, 1s.; Schools, Half-price.—Open daily from Eleven till Five o'clock, and every Evening (EXCEPT SATURDAY) from Seven till Half-past Ten.

SCIENTIFIC

Rudimentary Works for Beginners. Weale.

A poet has sung—"a little learning is a dangerous thing";—and on this text a philosophical historian not long since discoursing has endeavoured to show, as our readers know, that since all men cannot "drink deep" there is no good reason why they should not "taste" of the spring of knowledge. More recently, a natural philosopher of high standing has been endeavouring to prove that, as far as science is concerned, Pope was correct in his view of the danger of superficial knowledge,—and the advice of the professor goes to the extent of discouraging all attempts to popularize science.

That this expression of an opinion adverse to that of the majority of our best thinkers and most practical men should have proceeded from one who has devoted the powers of his mind to abstract science, is perhaps not surprising. Granting to him, however, the merits of a superior mind,—it must be admitted that he has stood too much aloof from the multitude of his brethren to know their wants or to feel any sympathy with them if he did. He has wandered in the High Alps watching the slowly moving glacier until his nature has taken colour and character from that it "works in,"—and he returns to the valley to censure the quicker movement of the living multitude, and throw chill on the warm spirit which impels them onward.—It must not be disguised that the close cultivation of science resolves itself into a scheme of solitary and unremitting labour,—the reward of which is possibly far remote, unless the votary be content with the pleasure which he may derive from finding that the door of nature's mysteries is opened to his knocking. A heart and soul devotion to the cause of natural truth is necessary to the discoverer of her secrets.

But while there is no reason why all men should be cultivators of science,—there are good ones why all men should be lovers of wisdom. On the argument that a little knowledge is dangerous to the truths of science would be told only to its actual students; whereas even those who have preached this exclusive doctrine have been desirous of that applause which they can receive only when the mass of mankind can judge of the additional knowledge that they have won from nature. It is impossible under any condition of society that all men should be philosophers, in the common acceptance of the term—society indeed would not be improved if they were so;—but all may be taught to profit by the teachings of philosophy.

It has been said that a smattering of scientific knowledge tends to induce conceit in the individual and the perpetuation of error in the multitude,—that the system of lecturing as pursued in mechanics' institutes leads to a superficial acquaintance with the pursuits of science, and cultivates a lamentable and vicious dilettantism amongst their members. We are not prepared to say that there may not be some foundation for the charge; and we are ready to admit that the very discursive

system introduced in some of these institutions for the purpose of catching members has been fraught with evil consequences. But as a set-off, we would draw attention to the spirit of inquiry which has been awakened since the principle of popular lectures has prevailed amongst us,—and to the fact that the demand for works on science within the last ten years has increased twenty-fold. By giving to the people the great truths of science in a form which they can understand, we have often placed the grain of mustard seed in good soil, where it has germinated and grown into a tree which has given shelter and yielded fruit. The true result of a little knowledge is told in the rapidly-increasing demand for more; and these Rudimentary Treatises—published by Mr. Weale as a consequence of that demand—are essentially a contradiction to the pernicious doctrine of its danger.

Chemistry, natural philosophy, the sciences of electricity, magnetism and mineralogy have been treated of in these rudimentary volumes by men who have made themselves masters of the subjects on which they write. Mechanics and engineering have been discussed in all their departments by practical engineers. The mathematician has been induced to render his studies more thoroughly rudimentary than before; and the architect, the builder and the clock-maker have each endeavoured to make plain the mysteries of their professions.

We have fancied that some of the best of these Treatises might have been still more rudimentary with advantage,—and that technical expressions have been often introduced when a little study would have enabled the author to express himself in common language. This is, we admit, a difficulty. If we employ men familiar with a subject, they see everything clearly from the point on which they stand,—and are apt to forget that the thousands in the valley have yet to ascend the hill before they can embrace with their imperfect senses so wide a range of scientific knowledge. That which is clear to the student of science is often invisible to the yet untaught,—and to render it visible is a task requiring great care and tact.

We have, however, met with no set of rudimentary treatises on science more lucid than these. This, with their cheapness, is a high recommendation;—and we believe that these little works are a boon to a public eager for a knowledge of the laws which regulate this great globe with its beautiful organizations and its inorganic wonders.

SCIENTIFIC GOSSIP.—The French are now as eager after improvements in the Photographic processes on paper as they have hitherto been for developing more perfectly the image on the Daguerreotype silver plates. The inequalities of paper have ever been felt as a great objection to its use. M. Blanquart Evrard informs us that by washing paper with a mixture of the serum of milk and a small quantity of albumen—about three-quarters of a pint of whey and the white of one egg—it is rendered free from all that has hitherto been deemed objectionable. Papers thus treated may be kept ready for use, since it has been found that after six months they are as good as when just prepared. M. Niepce de Saint-Victor states that by mixing a small quantity of Narbonne honey with albumen the sensibility of the photographic glass plates or papers is increased in a surprising manner.

M. Boutigny has devised an exceedingly simple method for showing his interesting experiments on the spheroidal state of fluids. He takes a platinum wire and rolls it into a spiral like the spring of a watch, taking care to depress the central portion. He forms thus a sort of capsule, or circular and concave gridiron, in which the water is contained when the wire has been previously made red hot. By the repulsion of caloric the water is retained, and forming itself into a spheroid, rolls about without flowing through. Alcohol or ether may be substituted for water; when the vapours escaping take fire above and below the wire,—but the spheroidal drop moves rapidly about within the flames without undergoing combustion.

M. Chatin finds that iodine may be detected in the three kingdoms of nature:—water, plants and animals all affording by analysis very decided indi-

cations of its presence. He has detected it also in several lead ores, and in graphite. It appears, says M. Chatin, that in the ancient world as in the new the presence of iodine is evident,—and the proportions in which it is found in the vegetable debris hidden in the soil afford the geologist means for ascertaining the distribution of water in ancient times. Thus, a coal which is rich in iodine ought to prove that the vegetation had been developed in a marshy land,—and those coals which do not contain iodine, that it was formed from plants of a more decidedly terrestrial character.

The American Association for the Advancement of Science has been holding its Third Annual Meeting at New Haven,—under the presidency of Prof. A. D. Bache. As far as we have received information of the proceedings of this Association, the communications appear to have been principally connected with the physical sciences. Prof. Olmsted, Loomis, and Silliman, and Mr. Gould read interesting papers on electricity:—that by Mr. Gould being an account of a very extensive series of experiments made by the United States Survey on some 1,500 miles of electrical telegraph to determine the velocity of the disturbance passing along the signal wires. Prof. Wheatstone had determined the velocity of current electricity as not less than 238,000 miles in a second,—Fizeau has more recently inferred from his experiments that the electricity passed through iron wire at the rate of 63,200 miles per second, and through copper wire with a velocity equal to 110,000 miles in the same time. Mr. Gould thinks these values far too high; and he gives as the results of his observations, which appear to have been made with much care, a velocity for the current electricity of not less than 12,000 nor more than 20,000 miles per second as it traverses the telegraphic wire and the earth in completing the circuit connexion.—A communication was made by Prof. Loomis of novel, and to us curious, phenomena of electrical houses. His statement was as follows:—"Within a few years past, several houses in the city of New York have exhibited electrical phenomena in a very remarkable degree. For months in succession they have emitted sparks of considerable intensity, accompanied by a loud snap. A stranger, on entering one of these electrical houses, in attempting to shake hands with the inmates, receives a shock, which is quite noticeable, and somewhat unpleasant. Ladies, in attempting to kiss each other, are saluted by a spark. A spark is perceived whenever the hand is brought near to the knob of a door, the gilded frame of a mirror, the gas pipes, or any metallic body, especially when this body communicates freely with the earth. In one house which I have had the opportunity to examine, a child in taking hold of the knob of a door received so severe a shock that it ran off in great fright. The lady of the house, in approaching the speaking tube to give orders to the servants, received a very unpleasant shock in the mouth, and was much annoyed by the electricity, until she learned first to touch the tube with her finger. In passing from one parlour to the other, if she chance to step upon the brass plate which serves as a slide for the folding-doors, she receives an unpleasant shock in the foot. When she touched her finger to the chandelier (the room was lighted with gas by a chandelier suspended from the ceiling) there appeared a brilliant spark and a snap. In many houses the phenomena have been so remarkable as to occasion general surprise, and almost alarm. After a careful examination of several cases of this kind, I have come to the conclusion, that the electricity is created by the friction of the shoes of the inmates on the carpets of the house. In order to produce this effect, there must be a combination of several favourable circumstances. The carpet, or at least its upper surface, must be entirely of wool, and of a close texture, in order to furnish an abundance of electricity. So far as I have had an opportunity to judge, I infer that heavy velvet carpets answer this purpose best. Two thicknesses of in-grain carpeting answer very well. The effect of the increased thickness is obviously to improve the insulation of the carpet. The carpet must be quite dry, and also the floor of the room, so that the fluid may not be conveyed away as soon as it is excited. This will not

generally be the case except in winter, and in rooms which are habitually kept quite warm. The most remarkable cases which I have heard of in New York have been of close, well built houses, kept very warm by furnaces; and the electricity was most abundant in very cold weather. In warm weather only feeble signs of electricity are obtained. The rubber on the shoe must also be dry, like the carpet, and it must be rubbed upon the carpet somewhat vigorously."—The papers have been tolerably numerous; and those by Profs. Agassiz, Silliman, W. R. Johnson, and W. B. Rogers were of much interest in their respective departments.—The following statement, made by Profs. Rogers and Johnson, has its value from its practical importance. They took occasion to call attention to the fact that the anticipations excited by the discovery of gold on the surface are seldom fully realized. At the surface meteoric influences have in most cases been at work, and have effected such a decomposition and segregation that there the gold is easily obtained; but as we proceed lower down, beyond the influence of the air, we find the gold so closely connected with other minerals that its separation is a very difficult process, only effected after much expense and labour. In explanation of these views, it was stated, that at Gold Hill the toll at the mill for grinding is, for surface ore, 20 cents,—for that obtained lower down, 30 cents the bushel. It is found, however, that if after the ore has once been operated on and all the gold possible extracted, it is exposed for a few months to atmospheric influences, you can then obtain as much gold from a bushel of ore as at first.

FINE ARTS

ENGLISH PENNY-A-LINING.

WE have freely recognized that dearth of material succeeding the gathering in of the great political harvest in this country the penny-a-liner finds an exercise for his vocation,—and admitted that his calling has its uses, though not in this country very brilliantly maintained. In sooth, this professional caterer is a great bungler,—and rarely steps out of his beaten track without committing himself egregiously. After all, we would rather swallow his eels and bolt his turnips, of whatever size, than feed on the garbage which he is tempted to furnish when he abandons his little corners of the field of natural history and surrenders himself unrestrainedly to the exercise of his own questionable taste and poor imagination. Our readers know that we duly welcomed his inauguration of the sea-serpent amongst his home materials,—though we think he has already played more tricks with that animal than a wise practice of his calling would have warranted. A prudent penny-a-liner would neither have made his new monster leap so high nor let everybody catch a sight of him who chose to go out in a boat for the purpose. The American penny-a-liner, who, though daring, is an artist, showed the serpent only at long intervals,—and never brought him to too close a scrutiny nor let him come out of the water. The English practitioner vulgarized the monster at once. The very first thing he did with him was, to make him scratch himself deliberately against the rocks, and leave a scale behind to measure him by,—which has not, however, since been forthcoming. The bungler showed the trick of his hand at once,—and discredited his own conjuring. The English penny-a-liner cannot handle a sea-serpent.

Still, we ask him to keep among the deep sea marvels, rather than meddle with matters more delicate. From his chace after the great serpent he seems to have contracted the habit of being "at sea" even when he deals with things a-shore. Since he wants the taste which should prevent him from invading the privacy of a lady's home,—that lady in the first place, but entitled to have a home as well as the veriest penny-a-liner,—we would fain convince him how egregiously he is lacking in the judgment which can make it profitable for him to practise in the eaves-dropping line. It is impossible to conceive a story more absurdly inscribed with its own self-convictions than that which certain papers have been copying from a "correspondent of the *Bristol Times*," wherein the Queen is made to figure

offensively as the heroine. All the properties employed are so absurdly bestowed as to mark at once the stupidity and the imposture; and the designation by name—or by unmistakable sign—of the minor actors, to give the air of verisimilitude, belongs to the same order of bungling which left the scales of the sea-serpent for examination on a rock. In both cases the means of detection are gratuitously given.—

"Having a desire" [says this clever letter writer, speaking of Her Majesty Queen Victoria,] "to try her hand in engraving or etching on copper some of her own drawings, she spoke to a painter of great eminence to send an engraver to the Castle, to instruct her in making these same etchings. Accordingly, a leading engraver, who stands now perhaps the first in England, received an intimation that he was to prepare plates of copper or zinc to instruct the Queen in the work. He complied, of course, with the command, and proceeded to Windsor, when he was ushered into the royal apartment, where Her Majesty was attended only by Miss Cox, the lady-in-waiting for the day. The engraver is naturally so deaf that he is obliged to carry an ear-trumpet. It was Miss Cox's business to apply her lips to this instrument and communicate through it Her Majesty's commands. The engraving went on very satisfactorily, Her Majesty, who is an apt scholar, soon making out etchings *à la* *tercio* with considerable ability. The engraver was then informed that he might retire to lunch, and he was conducted into a room where there was a slight refectory, consisting of a few slices of roast mutton, and a glass or two of wine ready for him. After a very moderate meal he resumed Her Majesty, and resumed the work. Two more etchings having been made, Her Majesty expressed herself delighted with what she had done, and the following conversation occurred:—"Mr. —, Her Majesty wishes to know if she can have impressions of these plates taken?"—Engraver: "Certainly, madam, nothing easier; I could take them with me to London, have proofs pulled at a copper-plate printer, and the plates and proofs remitted carefully to the Castle."—"Her Majesty wishes to know if this would be expensive?"—Engraver: "Oh, no, Madam."—"How much, Her Majesty desires me to ask?"—Engraver: "A mere trifle."—"Her Majesty wishes to know the cost, or near it?"—Engraver, thinking for a moment: "I should say about half-a-crown, not more, madam."—"Then Her Majesty will have them done."

A penny-a-liner of whom there was the very smallest hope in his profession would at least have stopped here,—and already feared that he was too happy in his inspirations than he could wish. But this writer belongs to that utterly irreclaimable class who think it desirable to "clinch it."—"The engraver now took his leave of his pupil, and was proceeding down the staircase"—when he is followed by "one of the court footmen, in scarlet livery" [this is a piece of penny-a-lining art, to make the coming meanness seem more conspicuous,—and to show that the writer may be trusted even to his details, for he knows that the Queen's footmen wear scarlet liveries, and therefore know very well all that the Queen said to Miss Cox and through Miss Cox and the trumpet, who "spoke to him." Here we grow very minute,—and accordingly make a blunder. Not hearing what the footman said, he of the trumpet [Mr. Thomas Landseer is of course intended], "paused, thinking he was going wrong. He was spoken to again,—but still not hearing, he was once more proceeding on his way when another crimson-clad footman [this time, observe, the footman is crimson-clad; and this want of power to distinguish between crimson and scarlet exactly exhibits the moral of the penny-a-liner's incapacity to deal with anything having more colour in it than a turnip] turned him quite round,—when he saw Miss Cox at the top of the staircase beckoning to him. He, therefore, went back, not knowing what he was recalled for. 'Mr. —,' said Miss Cox, holding out a coin in her fingers, 'Her Majesty has commanded me to give you the half-a-crown which you said it would cost to have the impressions of the etchings taken.' The engraver took the half-a-crown, returned to London, had the etchings struck off, and the honour of the duty was all he ever received for the day's work."—Now, we would be glad to take the opinion of "Mr. B. of Bandon," or of that other gentleman who saw the sea serpent "wink its eye," as to the particulars of this court story.—The great mistake made by the caterer on this occasion, among all the mistakes in which his work abounds, consisted in this, that unless it be the two persons above referred to, no man, woman, or child of all who may read his story throughout Her Majesty's dominions will believe a single word of what he has written.

FINE-ART GOSSIP.—Preparations are making at Chelmsford for the inauguration, with due honours as we understand, of Mr. Baily's fine statue of a distinguished son of that town, the late Chief Justice Tindal. Nothing is wanting to the accomplishment of this memorial but the inscription, which is in course of being supplied; and when that is completed a day will be named, within a few weeks we believe, for the inauguration.

A correspondent signing himself "A Subscriber," writes to us as follows:—"It is much to be regretted that one of the most beautiful pedestals (that to the statue of Charles the First at Charing Cross) is in so dilapidated a state as to render it scarcely possible to make out the mouldings and ornaments. If Government will not preserve such monuments, it would (ere it be too late) be praiseworthy in some private individual to effect its restoration. Throughout the metropolis there is not a pedestal to be compared with it,—and it is much to be regretted that sculptors have not followed it as a model."

The *Scotsman* says:—"A movement is in progress for the erection of an Institute of the Fine Arts in Glasgow:—where the want of a suitable building for the exhibition of Paintings and Sculpture, and the encouragement of the Fine Arts generally, has long been felt."

In Paris, the Minister of the Interior has ordered a bust of the well-known printer, Firmin Didot,—to be placed in the great hall of the *Imprimerie Nationale*.

The *Brussels Herald* announces that M. Charles Van Bevere, the Dutch painter, died recently at the age of forty-one.

A correspondent writes to us on a subject which has often been a theme of comment and argument in the *Athenæum*.—"When," he says, "will an end be put to the desecration of the glorious old Abbey at Westminster by cramming it with statues and tablets in commemoration of deceased celebrities? Shall we finish by openly and avowedly thrusting Religion from its dedicated shrine after the example of our neighbours who have changed a church into a temple for their 'grands hommes'?"—A Gothic cathedral makes a sorry sculpture gallery, setting aside all more serious objections. What, if we were to remove the iron railing which incloses the north side of the Abbey, together with St. Margaret's Church, and substitute for that fence an arcade or cloister, after the fashion of the Campo Santo at Pisa! Into this every monument which is not in accordance with the architecture of the Abbey could be removed:—a few score feet of it being of higher elevation than the rest, to afford space for those marble extravagancies which have not respected even the windows of the Abbey. If thought advisable, a small brass could be let into the cleared pavement of the Abbey,—marking the site of each monument thus removed. This cloistral arcade would of course be always open to the public. Its construction would admit of a due surveillance being readily exercised by a keeper at each angle of the interior; and the merits and glories of those whose memory it is wished to honour might be set forth in sculpture—and in fresco,—without a disturbing feeling of unfitness and with more conspicuous effect."

MUSIC AND THE DRAMA

SADLER'S WELLS.—On Friday week, Mr. C. Whitehead's play of 'The Cavalier' was introduced to this stage,—and experienced an extraordinary reception. The piece, it may be recollected, was among the last produced by Mr. Morris at the Haymarket Theatre. It was then supported by Mr. Vandenhoff and Miss Ellen Tree, yet suffered a marked failure,—being vociferously condemned. The catastrophe excited the indignation of the audience:—and it was accordingly altered. After a few nights in London, the new drama was referred to the provinces,—where it has continued to be occasionally performed. We mention these facts to illustrate a principle. The anger of the audience on the original production of the play was due to disappointed expectation. The author had attempted a surprise in the last scene,—having provided in the one immediately preceding for a

different catastrophe. This is an instance in proof of the superior policy of preparing the mind of the spectator for the dramatic result,—instead of trusting to a trick like that which in this instance the author was subsequently compelled to abandon.

The play of 'The Cavalier' is a composition of what the German critics call "the power school." It depends on forcible situations and forcible language. The interest lies closely packed together, and there is no repose permitted. The feelings are highly wrought up, and a certain climax is attained in every scene.—The character of the Cavalier, *Henry Hargrave*, was on the present occasion supported by Mr. George Bennett; who threw into it his best powers,—and presented a specimen of genuine strong acting which we shall not easily forget. Its effect on the house was extraordinary,—and in the closing situation of the second act the actor was recalled before the curtain, and loudly cheered. It is with more than common pleasure that we record this tribute to so old a servant of the stage—one who, it is generally felt, has deserved far greater fame than he has achieved. The stage of our day can show nothing greater than some of his performances. The part of the heroine was undertaken by Miss Eliza Travers,—a clever actress, who went through it with much feeling and good sense.

STRAND.—The son of Sir Thomas Talfourd has contributed another drama to the stage, under the title of 'Alvarez; or, the Heart Wreck.' The materials of the piece are decidedly melodramatic; but the serious portions of the dialogue are sometimes poetic, and the lighter parts have much humour set off with some sparkling puns. *Alvarez* is the avenger of his wife's dishonour and his sister's abduction. The situations through which he is led to the result are striking:—and the author's conception was well realized by Mr. Johnstone. The piece was successful.

MUSICAL AND DRAMATIC GOSSIP.—The projectors of the Concerts at *Her Majesty's Theatre* appear, at all events, resolute to set them a-going with spirit. Our contemporaries announce that the theatre will be in some degree re-decorated:—its gold-coloured curtains replaced by a suit of geranium-coloured satin trimmed with gold lace. The four circles of private boxes are to be arranged as stalls. From the same authorities we learn that "the celebrated Félicien David, the composer of 'Le Désert,' is employed on a new dramatic Symphony, which he will conduct in person,—and Herr Marschner, the composer of 'Der Vampyr,' and the renowned Spohr, are busily engaged on new works."—Besides the new *Cantatas* by Mr. Macfarren and Mr. E. Loder, it is rumoured that an Overture written expressly by Mr. Balfe, also a hunting part-song, will be performed on the first night.—We learn that M. Hallé is engaged to perform at six of the concerts.

Among the MSS. of complete works left behind him by Mendelssohn, and in gradual course of publication, we hear of an unknown *operetta*. This (to avoid the possibility of misconception) is not 'The Wedding of Canache,' for that work was produced at Berlin, and some of its musical pieces were published.

We now learn from the *Sacred Harmonic Society* that the alterations in Exeter Hall (already adverted to in this paper) will be completed by the 9th of November.—We hope that something may have been done to improve the means of entrance, still more of exit, for the vast audiences there congregated.

The Parisian papers in Signor Ronconi's secret assure us that he is straining every nerve to make the Italian Opera brilliant this winter,—and that his programme will be as surprising as it is satisfactory.—M. Benedict's opera 'The Crusaders' has been recently given at Frankfurt.—The Italian Opera in the Spanish capital appears to be mounted on the most liberal and costly footing, the Court taking charge of the surplus of expenditure over receipts.—The Austrian government, says another rumour, is about to subsidize the *Teatro Fenice* at Venice. But the best subsidy will only go a short way, failing singers and (still more) a composer.

Our contemporaries are already announcing the Musical Festivals of 1851 to be those of Worcester, Norwich, and Liverpool.—The last we suppose is contingent on the completion of St. George's Hall.

A new, expeditious, elegant, and cheap method of printing music is said to have been discovered at Madrid.

Some weeks ago 'L'Amant Jaloux' was announced as a novelty at the *Opéra Comique* of Paris. We were then not aware that this was Grétry's opera, the text of which was written by d'Hele, the English librettist, so characteristically described in the musician's memoirs. The instrumental part of the opera has been retouched by M. Batton,—it is said, with modesty, and therefore with success.—A new opera, by the wonderfully-fertile M. Scribe, set by M. Halévy, is in preparation for the same theatre.—A two-act opera, by Herr Rosenhain, is in rehearsal at the *Grand Opéra*, to succeed (we suppose) 'L'Enfant Prodigue.' This new work of M. Auber seems strangely tardy in making its appearance.

Mr. Bourcicault, in a letter to the *Sunday Times*, denies having had any share in the authorship of the version of 'Giraldina,' acted at the Haymarket. The report to the contrary originated in the fact of Mr. Bourcicault having been deputed by Mr. Webster to superintend the rehearsals during his own absence from town.

The theatrical papers make it a point of importance to record the meeting, on Saturday last, of the company at the Princess's Theatre, under the management of Messrs. Kean and Keeley. The following are the more celebrated of the company engaged:—Messrs. Wigan, Ryder, C. Fisher, Bolton, Meadows, Harley, Flexmore, and Ellis,—Mdlle. Auriol, Mrs. Wigan, and the Misses Summers, Cushnie, and Phillips. These, with Mr. and Mrs. Kean and Mr. and Mrs. Keeley, seem sufficient to support at least the demands of elegant and poetic comedy. The theatre opens this evening, with Shakspeare's 'Twelfth Night,' and a new farce, entitled 'Platonic Attachments.' We are glad to find this handsome theatre at length under an intelligent management.

MISCELLANEA

The Reptile Room by Night.—The following striking account of the Reptile Room in the Zoological Gardens, Regent's Park, we take, with some abridgment, from *Bentley's Miscellany*.—"About ten o'clock one evening during the last spring, in company with two naturalists of eminence, we entered that apartment. A small lantern was our only light, and the faint illumination of this imparted a ghastly character to the scene before us. The clear plate-glass which faces the cages was invisible, and it was difficult to believe that the monsters were in confinement and the spectators secure. Those who have only seen the boas and pythons, the rattlesnakes and cobras lazily hanging in festoons from the forks of the trees in the dens, or sluggishly coiled up, can form no conception of the appearance and actions of the same creatures at night. The huge boas and pythons were chasing each other in every direction, whisking about the dens with the rapidity of lightning, sometimes clinging in huge coils round the branches, anon entwining each other in massive folds, then separating they would rush over and under the branches, hissing and lashing their tails in hideous sport. Ever and anon thirsty with their exertions, they would approach the pans of water and drink eagerly, lapping it with their forked tongues. As our eyes became accustomed to the darkness, we perceived objects better; and on the uppermost branch of the tree, in the den of the biggest serpent, we perceived a pigeon quietly roosting, apparently indifferent alike to the turmoil which was going on around and to the vicinity of the monster whose meal it was soon to form. In the den of one of the smaller serpents was a little mouse, whose panting sides and fast-beating heart showed that it, at least, disliked its company. * * During the time we were looking at these creatures, all sorts of odd noises were heard. A strange scratching against the glass would be audible,—it was the carnivorous lizard endeavouring to inform us that it was a fast day with him, entirely contrary to his inclina-

tion. A sharp hiss would startle us from another quarter,—and we stepped back involuntarily as the lantern revealed the inflated hood and threatening action of an angry cobra. Then a rattlesnake would take umbrage, and sounding an alarm, would make a stroke against the glass, intended for our person. The fixed gaze from the brilliant eyes of the huge pythons was more fascinating than pleasant,—and the scene, taking it altogether, more exciting than agreeable. Each of the spectators involuntarily stooped to make sure that his trousers were well strapped down; and, as if our nerves were jesting, a strange sensation would every now and then be felt, resembling the twining of a small snake about the legs. Just before leaving the house, a great dor beetle, which had flown in, attracted by the light, struck with some force against our right ear. Startled we were,—for at the moment our impression was that it was some member of the happy family around us who had favoured us with a mark of his attention.

Proposed Transatlantic Packet Station.—The Lords of the Admiralty have given instructions for a complete survey of the western coast of Cork, to ascertain its capabilities for being converted into a transatlantic packet station and harbour of refuge. Three Government Commissioners are to visit the spot.—*Times*.

The Remains of James the Second.—The following curious account, says a writer in the *Notes and Queries*, was given to me by Mr. Fitz-Simons, an Irish gentleman, upwards of eighty years of age, with whom I became acquainted when resident with my family at Toulouse, in September 1840; he having resided in that city for many years as a teacher of the French and English languages, and had attended the late Sir William Follett in the former capacity there in 1817. He said:—"I was a prisoner in Paris, in the Convent of the English Benedictines, in the Rue St. Jacques, during part of the Revolution. In the year 1793 or 1794 the body of King James II. of England was in one of the chapels there,—where it had been deposited some time, under the expectation that it would one day be sent to England for interment in Westminster Abbey. It had never been buried. The body was in a wooden coffin, enclosed in a leaden one, and that again enclosed in a second wooden one, covered with black velvet. While I was a prisoner, the sans-culottes broke open the coffins to get at the lead to cast into bullets. The body lay exposed nearly a whole day. It was swaddled like a mummy, bound tight with garters. The sans-culottes took out the body, which had been embalmed. There was a strong smell of vinegar and camphor. The corpse was beautiful and perfect; the hands and nails were very fine. I moved and bent every finger. I never saw so fine a set of teeth in my life. A young lady, a fellow prisoner, wished much to have a tooth; I tried to get one out for her, but could not, they were so firmly fixed. The feet also were very beautiful. The face and cheeks were just as if he were alive. I rolled his eyes; the eyeballs were perfectly firm under my finger. The French and English prisoners gave money to the sans-culottes for showing the body. They said he was a good sans-culotte, and they were going to put him into a hole in the public churchyard like other sans-culottes; and he was carried away,—but where the body was thrown I never heard. King George IV. tried all in his power to get tidings of the body, but could not. Around the chapel were several wax moulds of the face hung up, made probably at the time of the king's death,—and the corpse was very like them. The body had been originally kept at the palace of St. Germain, whence it was brought to the Convent of the Benedictines. Mr. Porter, the prior, was a prisoner at the time in his own convent."

To CORRESPONDENTS.—A Sub.—H. D. W.—T. T.—Praise—W. W.—received.

W. W.—The book has been received.
W. L.—There is, of course, no address for an expired Commission. If our correspondent has any information of interest on the subject alluded to which he would wish to submit to us, with the guarantee of his name, we will willingly examine it.

Erratum.—In Mr. Colburn's advertisement in last week's *Athenæum*, p. 1008, col. 2, Miss Molesworth's new novel, "Claude," was erroneously stated to be "just ready," instead of now ready.

EXHIBITION OF 1851.
NOTICE TO EXHIBITORS is hereby given, that HER MAJESTY'S COMMISSIONERS have fixed the 31st of OCTOBER as the LAST DAY FOR RECEIVING APPLICATIONS FOR SPACE from the different LOCAL COMMITTEES of the United Kingdom, the Isle of Man, and the Channel Islands, intending Exhibitors failing to give due and sufficient notice to the nearest Local Committee, cannot be assured that their claims for space will receive any consideration.
M. DIGBY WYATT, Secretary.

August 17, 1850.

THE QUARTERLY REVIEW, No. CLXXIV., will be published on WEDNESDAY, Oct. 2.

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30	7 10	5000	3 13 0	273 5 10
23	6 11	1000	3 3 6	113 0 4
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1,000	1 year	100 0 0	102 10 0	1,102 10 0
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1821	£437 10 0	£570 15 9	£1,008 5 9
1822	375 0 0	504 7 6	879 7 6
1823	312 10 0	437 16 3	750 3 3
1824	250 0 0	371 5 0	621 5 0
1825	187 10 0	304 13 0	492 3 0
1826	125 0 0	237 10 0	362 10 0
1827	62 10 0	171 11 3	234 1 3
1828	..	105 0 0	105 0 0
1829	..	37 5 0	37 5 0
1830	..	37 5 0	37 5 0
1831	..	300 0 0	300 0 0
1832	..	220 0 0	220 0 0
1833	..	150 0 0	150 0 0
1834	..	75 0 0	75 0 0

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